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**Wild and Domestic Animals  
in Prehistoric and Early Historic India**



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in Prehistoric and Early Historic India**

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**A. T. CLASON**

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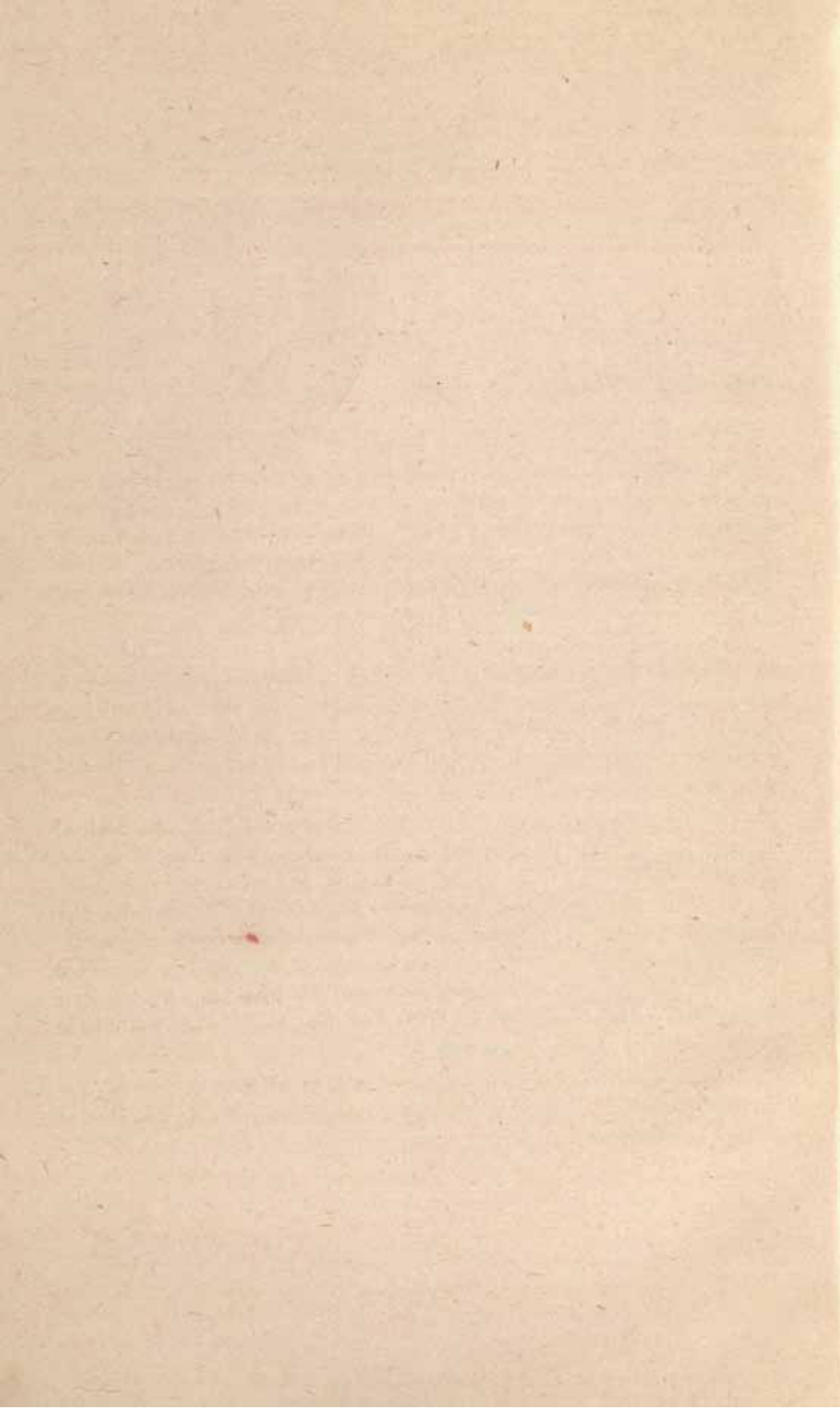
This volume is a dissertation based on three decades of excavations in the western part of the Indian peninsula carried out by the Archaeology Department of Deccan College, Poona. The focus is on the detailed study and analysis of faunal remains collected during these excavations, and the author's intention has been to supplement earlier studies in 1960, 1971 and 1975, with original observations and interpretations.

Clason studied part of a large collection of animal bones in 1972 and has presented their analysis in the perspective of food production, stock raising, subsequent cultivation and domestication on the one hand and climatic conditions and vegetation on the other. As an exposition of the Indian scene in prehistoric times, this work and its author have a decided claim to novelty.

The sixteenth publication of the Ethnographic and Folk Culture Society, (EFCS), this volume has already simultaneously appeared as a special number of *The Eastern Anthropologist* (Vol. 30 : No. 3). Though the objective of the EFCS since its inception in 1945 by late Prof. D. N. Majumdar, has been to publish material relating to folk culture, ethnography and social relations, publication of original work in physical anthropology, as well as prehistory and archaeology, has also progressed side by side. The Society's two earlier publications No. 4 (1963) and No. 15 (1977) on prehistoric archaeology have been well received.

The book had been edited by Late Dr. K. S. Mathur, Editor of *The Eastern Anthropologist*, but its publication was delayed due to his sudden demise on September 21, 1977.





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## Introduction

For three decades the Archaeology Department of the Deccan College in Poona has been carrying out the excavation of a number of prehistoric settlements in the western part of the Indian peninsula. During those excavations not only structural remains, pottery, stone and metal tools and other items of material culture were found, but also faunal remains, mostly bones. Part of these faunal remains were put at my disposal for examination during a stay in Poona in the second half of 1972. The object of my sojourn in India was not only to study the ancient animal bones, but also to make a beginning with archaeozoological research at the Archaeology Department of the Deccan College. My work on the faunal remains has to be considered in this context. I learned, however, only gradually that the animal bones which were put at my disposal were only a fraction of the bones available at the time of the excavations, and that the bones of some sites had already been studied and the results published at an earlier date by Shah (1971, 1973), Eapen (1960) and Alur (1975). As the purpose of those studies was mainly to provide the archaeologists with a list of species names I think it will be useful to supplement those studies with some of my own observations.

### ARCHAEOZOOLOGICAL RESEARCH IN INDIA

The first archaeozoological studies in India were the result of the discovery of the large settlements of the Indus Valley culture and the excavations of Mohenjodaro and Harappa in present-day Pakistan in the 1920s and 1930s. Semour Sewell and Guha (1931) described the bones found during the early Mohenjodaro excavations. Prashad (1936) identified the bones of Harappa.

Little work has been done since then in India on the faunal remains found during excavations. Two publications exist which try to give a survey. The first is by Conrad (1966), who gave a detailed report on the evidence published up till 1966 (Paddayya 1974). The author surveyed the evidence known about animal remains from the farming settlements in the Quetta Valley and the Zhob-Loralai region and those of the Indus Valley culture. She not only discussed the scanty animal remains, but paid particular attention to the animals depicted on pot sherds, seals, copper plates, descriptions in old texts, the clay figurines, and amulets. The fauna of the later settlements are not discussed by Conrad. Added to the book is a most useful bibliography.

The second work is by Nath (1973) who enumerates the work he has done since 1955 on the faunal remains of Indian sites ranging from layers of the third and second millennium B.C. of Mohenjodaro and Harappa to the medieval layers of Sarnath from the 12th century A.D. In this work Nath gives useful lists of the species found at each site, illustrated with pictures of the more spectacular finds.

#### EARLY FOOD PRODUCTION IN THE MIDDLE EAST

It is thought at present that the main regions where the transition of food gathering to food production took place are to be sought in the Near East in the following areas :

1. the southern alluvial plain of Mesopotamia;
2. the low hills at the foot of the Zagros and Taurus mountains;
3. the valleys of those mountains;
4. the high plateaus of Turkey; and
5. the coastal area and the low hills of the eastern Mediterranean.

Here, not only the wild species of a number of our food grains are found, but also wild cattle, wild sheep, wild goat, wild pig and a small wolf—species that are considered to be the parent species of the domestic animals. Only the wild horse was missing in this region. Sheep and goat are considered to have been domesticated close to 10,000 B.P., followed at a later date by cattle, pig and dog (Reed 1969). In the absence of the wild horse, the half-ass—*Equus hemionus*—was domesticated at first, to be replaced by the real domestic horse after 3000 B.C. (Conrad 1966; Brentjes 1965). Others, however, think that the onager was never domesticated, but that the domestic horse came at an earlier date to the Near East than has been presumed until now (Herre & Röhrs 1973).

It is assumed that from the five regions mentioned above, stock-breeding spread to the west and north into North Africa and Europe, to the southwest



into the Nile Valley and East Africa and to the east into Afghanistan, India and the Far East (fig. 1). If the domestic animals themselves had not actually been spread, then at least the idea of domestication had. Why domestication took place is still an unanswered question. There is no evidence that there was a sudden change in climate (van Zeist 1969a, 1969b) or in culture. On the contrary, everything points to a gradual development. What is evident, however, is that in the Late Palaeolithic and Mesolithic man learned to exploit ever more 'niches' of his surroundings to obtain food, not only hunting the smaller and larger mammals and birds, but also collecting shell-fish and crustaceans (Reed 1969; Flannery 1969). This enabled him to live in permanent settlements. Probably it was this settled life that led in the first place to stock-breeding and plant cultivation. It is, however, not a certain result of a settled life. There is evidence that some 20,000 years ago in the tundra steppes of Central Europe, man established a fairly settled way of life based on the hunting of the woolly rhinoceros and a number of other species such as aurochs, musk-ox, etc. (Klein 1974). At that time, however, he never reached the stage of animal keeping.

It is noteworthy that thus far the oldest farming cultures known from Pakistan and India date no further back than the middle of the third millennium B.C. However, as there is evidence that west of this region in Baluchistan, Sind (Fairservis 1956, 1959) and the Near East (Clason 1974), and east of it in northern Thailand (Solheim 1972), farming cultures existed at a much earlier date, it seems only a question of time before traces of older farming communities will be found in Pakistan and India. The first results of archaeozoological research of the animal remains found at Bagor (Misra 1971; Thomas 1975) and Adamgarh point in this direction. The bones found in the oldest layers of the microlithic site of Bagor, dated by C14 at 4500 B.C. (Agrawal, Gupta and Kusumgar 1971) seem to have belonged to small ruminants (sheep/goat) and cattle.

#### CLIMATE, FAUNA AND VEGETATION IN PRESENT-DAY INDIA

For a better understanding of the evidence given by the animal bones, climate and vegetation have to be discussed.<sup>1</sup> We will use the term India in its geographical sense, to include Pakistan, Ceylon and Bangla Desh.

In the north, northwest and northeast, this region is bordered by mountain ranges, including the highest in the world, the Himalayas, and in the south, southwest and southeast by the Indian Ocean. Access to this vast area

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1. The data are taken mainly from Prater (1971), *Book of Indian mammals*.

was only possible by mountain passess, and along the coasts. Zoo-geographical India is part of the oriental region. In the west it is part of the large deserts of Arabia and Africa, in the east of the tropical evergreen forests of East Asia. The whole of India can be divided into two subregions, that of the Himalayas and that of the Indian peninsula. In the former, some of the Indian mammals are found, but in the east the Sino-Indian element is marked and species are found that also live in Assam, Burma and southern China. In the west in the mountains of Kashmir and Western Ladakh they have been mainly supplanted by Indian species and forms, and by European and northern Asiatic forms. The second subregion, or India proper, is found south of the Himalayas. In the north we find here the immense stretches of the alluvial plains of Indus, Ganga and Brahmaputra, bordered in the south by the Vindhya Range and the rift in which the Narmada flows. The South has the form of a triangular table-land, slightly tilted to the east, bordered in the west by the Western Ghats along the coast of Maharashtra and Mysore, and the Eastern Ghats along the Madras coast. The animal life is marked by a true Indian fauna, of which black buck, nilgai and spotted deer are components.

When we are discussing the distribution of the animal species we have to remember that practically in the whole of India the original vegetation has been destroyed, and most of the present-day landscape is entirely man-made. In the west and centre, with an annual rainfall of 30 inches and less (figs. 2,3), vast areas were covered by a tropical thorn-forest. In the west of the peninsula and the east of the plain, tropical forest prevailed. In between those forest belts, and surrounding the thorn-forest nucleus, a vast region is found belonging to the tropical dry forest. It has been surmised, and there are indications for it in the West (Singh 1971), that in prehistoric times conditions could have been slightly more humid than today. Singh found that in the Indus Valley around 2000 B.C. fresh water plants were growing that are absent in this region at present. It has to be kept in mind, however, that the destruction of the original vegetation and the erosion of the top soil makes it difficult, if not impossible, for the available water to be retained for a longer time. In the period when the first farmers settled in the subcontinent the original vegetation was still present.

The trans-Indus districts of Punjab, Western Sind and Baluchistan form the eastern border of the large deserts, broken by the Indus Valley and bordered by the thorn-scrub region in the east. A large number of desert species are found here. The plains region has in the west still a number of desert forms, in the east it becomes more humid and merges into the Sunderbans, a vast area of swamp and tropical forests. The animals found here are



no different from those of the peninsula. The table-land has undulating plains separated by ranges of flat-topped hills. The Western Ghats cut it from the monsoon rains. In those plains large herds of gazelle and antelope were common. The jungle cat, the common fox, the Indian wolf, hares, rats and mice are still to be found. Gaur, sambar, chital and the cuon are species of the open deciduous hill forests. North and east of Nagpur the conditions are more humid; wild elephant, buffalo and swamp deer also occur in this area. The Western Ghats, finally, are a zone with great humidity and heavy rainfall in the monsoon. The forests of the Western Ghats and the south Indian Hill ranges have a richer fauna than the other parts of the peninsula.

It is interesting that in the southern hills species are found that also live in the higher forests of Assam and the Himalayas. The birds present a different picture from that of the mammals. Their distribution is less restricted by natural barriers than that of the latter. In India we have indigenous species, but also the winter migrants from northern Eurasia. In the Himalayas, birds migrate to higher and lower altitudes with the coming of spring and winter. Hill birds which breed in the Himalayas spend the winter in the southern Nilgiris (Salim Ali 1949). The migrating habits of some birds make it sometimes possible to decide in which season a prehistoric settlement was inhabited. Archaeozoological research may help to explain the present-day distribution of certain species that live in isolated mountain ranges.

Of the wild mammals that are living in India a number may have been domesticated. The wild gaur and the buffalo are still present, and in the most eastern regions also the banteng (Prater 1971). All three species have been domesticated. The domestic buffalo is found all over India, the mithan or gayal (domesticated gaur) and the Bali cattle (domesticated banteng) are, however, restricted to the eastern parts. Of the domestic cattle that roam the country it is not known whether a wild ancestor lived at any time in India. It is assumed that modern cattle are the descendants of the wild *Bos primigenius* from western Asia (Herre & Röhrs 1973; Epstein 1956). Wild sheep and goat are still found in Western India and the northern mountain areas, though their relationship with the domestic breeds is not clear. The wild boar was found in large parts of India and could have been locally domesticated. Both the horse and the donkey must have been introduced from elsewhere, and the wild half ass—the kiang—found in Western India, is not supposed to have been domesticated. The history of the dog and the cat is still unknown. The camel is restricted to the west and northwest. The elephant cannot be counted among the true domestic animals. Their breed-

ing is often not controlled by man and the animals have to be caught young to be tamed and trained for the work they are to do.

## The material

The faunal remains of 11 prehistoric settlements were investigated. The bones from all sites were fractured, show cutting marks, and a number of them had been in contact with fire. It seems that these bones were the leftovers of meals or were slaughter-garbage. The bone samples range from a small number, if collected during surveys, to several hundreds collected during excavations. The state of preservation of the bones is in many cases reasonable, but they can also be brittle, and then break easily. In a number of instances fossilisation had already progressed considerably. Most of the bones were covered with a thin crust of grey material that was difficult to remove (fig. 14). In some cases it was so thick that it made precise identification difficult or impossible; especially where teeth-patterns were concerned. The different stages of fossilisation and the thin crust made weighing the bones superfluous, since values thus obtained could not have been compared with each other. The same holds for the number of bones. In Kayatha, Nevasa, Navdatoli and Inamgaon, the bones were selectively collected by the excavators. The skeletal parts that were collected and the nearly total absence of the bones of small species (tables 3-13) illustrate this clearly. In Inamgaon the bones which were not thought worth studying were still laid out in the 'sherd yard' when I visited the site in 1972. Unfortunately the data about the stratification of this 'sherd yard' were no longer available, otherwise the bones could still have been collected for study.

### ARCHAEOLOGICAL BACKGROUND

Before discussing the sites we shall have to discuss briefly the archaeological history of India. The data were taken mainly from recent publications such as *The birth of Indian civilisation* (Allchin and Allchin 1968) and *Prehistory and Protohistory of India and Pakistan* (Sankalia 1974).



For many millennia, India was inhabited by the hunter-gatherers of the Early and Middle Stone Age, followed by those of the Late Stone Age, which is characterized by microlithic industries. From three sites in Gujarat and Rajasthan, Langhnaj (Clutton-Brock 1965), Adamgarh and Bagor (Misra 1971) there is evidence of early stock-breeding. The last mentioned settlement, dated by C 14 at 4500 B. C. (Agrawal, Gupta and Kusumgar 1971), preceded those of Baluchistan and Sind in the middle of the third mill. B. C. (Conrad 1966) by at least a thousand years. The next evidence comes from the cities of the Indus civilisation in the valleys of the Indus and its tributaries, which spread west to the region between the Jamuna and Ganga. Somewhat earlier or contemporary with the early Indus Valley culture is the settlement of Burzahom in the Vale of Kashmir. In the south of India, in the Karnatak region, another group of stock-breeders was found, contemporary with those of the Indus Valley cultures. The oldest, dated by C 14 at 2300 B. C., is Kodekal (Paddayya 1971). In the northeast also, in Assam and Nagaland, habitation traces belonging to this period are found. They show a close affinity with finds in southern China. Farmers spread further south into India in the period between 2000 B. C. and the beginning of our era. They settled along the courses of the rivers. In this period metal was introduced, first bronze, and later iron.

The sites of which the animal remains will be discussed in this paper are located in Malwa, Maharashtra, and Karnatak (fig. 3). Around 300 B.C. the historical period begins with the edicts of Emperor Asoka.

Basham (1971) gives us some idea of an early Indian village, which was a cluster of large and small huts grouped around a well or pond. The excavations in Nevasa showed that the houses were constructed from mud bricks and could be either round or rectangular. In the old days the villages may have been walled in. The earliest villagers would certainly not have known the cultural deserts of present-day India. In Malwa and Maharashtra the villages were mostly situated on river banks. The river valleys as well as the higher-lying land would have been covered by natural grasslands and woods. The natural vegetation would have been disrupted by clearings for land cultivation, only around the villages. Cattle, sheep, goat and swine must have been put to pasture outside the villages. In the seventh century A. D. dense jungle still lined the banks of the Ganga for many miles, according to an account by the Chinese Hsuan Tsang (Basham 1971). In the south, the hills were favoured for habitation, away from the rivers. The landscape may have had an open character of vast expanses of grass.

The houses of the villages in the south may have been circular huts with

wooden frames, interlaced with wattle screens and plastered with mud and cowdung.

In the north, in Malwa (Navdatoli), the huts were both round and oblong, built of a wooden frame and wattle and daub walls. The floors were made of cowdung. The settlements of Maharashtra seem to have been very similar to those of Malwa.

## The sites

### ASH-MOUNDS AND HABITATION SITES IN THE SHORAPUR DOAB

The oldest sites, the ash-mounds, were comprehensively discussed by Allchin (1963) and recently by Paddayya (1971, 1973). Allchin put forward the theory that the ash-mounds were cattle pens, in which the cattle dung was regularly burnt. The animal bones that were collected from these sites do not support this theory, since most of them seem to be slaughter garbage. If the sites are not closely linked to a settlement, it seems that they may also have been habitation sites.

At present about sixty mounds are known. These are distributed in the Gulbarga, Raichur and Bellary districts of North Karnataka and Anantapur and Kurnool districts of Andhra Pradesh. On the basis of his excavation at Utnur (Mahabubnagar district of Andhra Pradesh) and his study of surface evidence from other mounds, Allchin (1961, 1963) put forward the view that these mounds were cattle-pens in which the accumulated cowdung was burnt on ceremonial occasions reminiscent of present day festivals like Holi and Pongal.

The ash-mounds and habitation sites described below are situated in the Shorapur Doab, Gulbarga district, Karnataka (Paddayya 1973 : 4-11). The area is a triangular tract lying between the Krishna and Bhima rivers. Climatically it is semi-arid and forms part of the deciduous thorn-forest zone. The sites under study are generally confined to the hilly southwestern zone of the Doab.



## KODEKAL—KKL

The ash-mound at Kodekal is situated approximately 4 km southeast of Kodekal village and 8 km from the left bank of the Krishna river. The mound lies in a small valley with a mountain stream, bordered on both sides by granite hills. The mound was originally 45.7 m in diameter and was 4.6 m high. At present, the diameter is only 36.6 m, and the height 3.6 m. In 1967, two small trenches were dug into the mound. In the largest, measuring 3.6 x 3.0 m, six layers could be distinguished (fig. 5). The bones were mainly collected in (TF-748) layer 4 and 6, dated by C 14 at  $4285 \pm 85$  B. P. - 2335 B.C. (Paddayya 1971). According to the excavator, every bone was collected, and a number of them could be identified. Most of the bones were covered with a thin grey crust. The majority of the identified bones (table 2) belonged to cattle, followed by sheep/goat, pig, dog and small rodents. One bone may be of a deer. A carpometacarpus is from a bird the size of a domestic duck. Part of the bones were earlier identified by Shah (1973), who also found horse, buffalo, gazelle, swamp deer, spotted deer and domestic fowl. The bones of horse, deer and domestic fowl were not among the collection I myself saw. It is possible that part of the *Bos* sp. bones were from buffalo, though they seemed to be a homogeneous sample. One maxilla and one mandibula of cattle still had the deciduous dentition (table 14). Four fishbone fragments were also found.

Cattle predominated over the other species, which is in agreement with the observations of Allchin (1961) and Alur (manuscript) on the animal remains of Utnur. Although he does not mention it, it seems that Allchin is also describing a number of selectively collected animal remains.

## BUDIKAL—BHL. 5

The Budikal ash-mound is situated 0.8 km north of Budikal village on a sandstone plateau. The original large mound was damaged by a cart-track. The bones of this site are surface finds (table 2). No other bones than those of *Bos* sp. could be identified. One tibia was fossilised and belongs to a large fossil *Bovid*.

## KANNEKOLUR—KKR. 1

In the vicinity of Kannekolur two ash-mounds were found. The bones which will be discussed here came from the first. This mound is situated 0.8 km northwest of the village on the right bank of the Kannekolur nulla. The bones were surface finds and seemed slightly rolled, having rounded ridges. Sixteen bones belonged to *Bos* sp. and two to the small ruminants, sheep/goat.

## KUPI-KP

The site is situated 1.6 km northwest of Dimanhal. The mound no longer exists, the bones were surface finds. Neolithic habitation material and ashy earth covered an area of one acre. Six bones belonged to *Bos* sp.

## MALLUR—MLR—1 AND 2

Two ash-mounds occur at this place. Mallur 1 is situated northeast of Mallur, the mound originally measured 6 m in diameter and was 1.5 m high. Mallur 2 is situated  $\pm$  33 m west of Mallur 1 and forms no real mound. Ash was found over an area of 13.7 x 9 m, to a depth of 0.9 m. Four bones could be identified with certainty as belonging to *Bos* sp.

## THIRTH—TH

The mound of Thirth was found on the same sandstone plateau as Budikal and 1.6 km west-northwest of the village Tirth. It measures 11 x 8.2 x 1.8 m. The bones were surface finds. Six cattle bones could be identified.

## SITES IN MADHYA PRADESH AND MAHARASHTRA

## KAYATHA—KTH

Kayatha, situated 25 km east of Ujjain, was discovered by V. S. Wakankar in 1964. During a trial excavation in 1968-69 by the Deccan College under the direction of Dr. Z. D. Ansari, two trenches, A and B, were dug. In trench A, five habitation phases could be distinguished; in trench B phase I was missing (fig. 4, table 14). There appear to be three phases preceding the arrival of iron. Phase I (c. 2000-1800 B. C.) has Harappan affinities, in phase II (c. 1700-1500 B.C.) a Harappan seal was discovered, and in phase III (c. 1500-1200 B. C.) pottery of the Malwa and Jorwe traditions. Phases IV (c. 600-200 B. C.) and V (c. 200 B. C.-600 A. D.) belong to the historical period (Ansari and Dhavalikar 1975).

The dwelling-mound is situated on the left bank of the Choti Kalisind, a tributary of the Kalisind, which is in turn a tributary of the Chambal. These rivers are dry most of the year. A fairly large village at present crowns the mound of Kayatha which makes large scale excavation impossible. The surrounding area is undulating, fertile and has reasonable rainfall; it belongs to the dry deciduous forest zone. From phase I, II, III and IV, bones were collected (table 3). It appears that nearly all of them were the long bones of *Bos* sp. An antler fragment of a deer belonging to period II was picked up, as well as the horn-core of a black buck. The value of the Kayatha bones lies mainly in the fact that they help to provide an insight into the Bovid



population of the region. A few bones of the small ruminants were also found: a mandibula of a three-year-old small ruminant (sheep/goat) from the transition layer of phase II/III, and two of one-year and 1½-year-old animals in layer III. Of *Bos* sp., a maxilla of an approximately ½-year-old animal was collected from phase II. Maxillae of animals with adult sets of teeth, when slaughtered, were found in phase II, phase II/III, and in phase ? Of the mandibulae, four were of animals not yet three years old; two from phase II, and phase II : III, and one from phase III. A larger number of mandibulae with adult sets of teeth belong to phase I, phase II/III and phase IV (table 13).

#### NAVDATOLI—NVT

The dwelling-mound of Navdatoli is situated on the left bank of the Narbada river, opposite Maheshwar, where an old north-south route crossed the river. The Narbada flows to the west in a rift region and discharges its water into the Gulf of Cambay near Broach. The Narbada has a succession of several wide valleys, that of Navdatoli is 24 km long and 12 km wide. In the north, it is bordered by the hills of the Vindhya range, in the south, by those of the Satpura range. The important tribal group of the Bhil still lives in the region today. Navdatoli was excavated in the period of 1952-53 and 1957-59 by Prof. Sankalia, Dr. Deo and Dr. Ansari. Four mounds could be distinguished. The bones which were collected came from mound IV. Here, four trenches were dug, the major ones being trench I and II. The trenches were divided into a grid system (fig. 6) (Sankalia, Deo and Ansari 1971). Four main periods could be distinguished.

- d. Medieval Islamic —  $\pm 1400$  A. D.;
- c. Late Early Historic —  $\pm 100$  A. D. — 300 A. D.;
- b. Early Historic —  $\pm 100$  A. D. — 300 A. D.;
- a. Chalcolithic—phase 1, 2, 3, 4 —  $\pm 1600$  — 1300 B. C.

Bones were only collected from layers belonging to the first period. The inhabitants lived in round and rectangular houses. Since the bones were collected selectively, it is unnecessary to separate the material of the three trenches. In spite of the selective collecting, a relatively large number of species could be identified (table 4). Bones of *Bos* sp. were the most numerous, both sheep and goat could be identified with certainty, and also black buck, gazelle, buffalo and nilgai. Deer remains may belong to the spotted deer or hog deer and the swamp deer or sambar. One fish-bone and the remains of tortoises were found. Compared with the other sites the large amount of pig bones is conspicuous. Although the bones were selectively

collected it seems that the pig really could have been of more importance as a food animal in Navdatoli than in the other sites. This is probably due to the environment which is comparatively humid. Nowadays, rice growing is possible along the river, and in ancient times the valley would have been more wooded than at present.

At present, the Narbada Valley is part of the territory of the Bhil, one of the large tribal peoples still to be found in India. The inhabitants of Navdatoli may have been the early ancestors of the Bhil. The Bhil are nowadays first and foremost cattle breeders and cultivators, but they also work for wood contractors (Koppers and Jongblut 1942-45). Their most important domestic animals are the buffalo and the zebu. Every Bhil tries to have at least one buffalo and two zebras. Of the buffalo a smaller and a larger breed are recognized. Those are crossbred because the crossbred cow is supposed to give more milk. The cow is used for milking, the bull for work. The bull, male goats and cocks are the sacrificial animals of the Bhil. The bull may be consumed. Pig, horse, dog and cat are not mentioned. Chakraborti and Mukherji (1971) also mention fishing and the hunting of pigs, small game and birds. Hunting was still done with arrows, but snares were also used.

It appears that in prehistoric Navdatoli a proportion of the pigs were slaughtered when approximately 1/2 year old, most of the other animals were slaughtered when two years old or older (table 16). The majority of the slaughtered bovids reached the age of three years or more (table 16). Comparatively few calves were slaughtered.

An interesting feature of Navdatoli is the pottery, decorated with paintings of many animal species including mammals, birds, reptiles and insects (fig. 7, 8, 9). It seems that the ancient inhabitants of Navdatoli took a keen interest in the animals in and around their settlement. Of interest is that domestic animals are comparatively scarce. Most frequent are the pictures of black buck and peacock, for many centuries the two species most often used in Indian art and decoration. Only the ♂ black buck is depicted, the ♀ seems to be absent.

The domestic ox is depicted four times (fig. 7, A 1-4). In two cases it seems that the tips of the horns are gaily decorated, which is still done. Goats are depicted possibly, three times. One scene shows two heads, one clearly with a beard, the second shows one and half animals with straight horns and spotted bodies, they may be pied goats. Fig. 7, B2 shows an animal, also with relatively straight horns, busily browsing from the vegetation. The dog is depicted three times (fig. 7, C 1,2,3). Fig. 7, C 3 may be the picture of a fowl, wild or domesticated, fig. 7, C 2 may be a goose,



fig. 7, C 1 a pigeon; in either case it is uncertain whether domestic animals are meant. The same holds for the numerous paintings of the peacock. It seems that but few deer are represented (fig. 8, A 1, 2, 3), the pig and nilgai are missing. Of the large carnivores the tiger and the panther occur, as well as two foxes. The rodents are represented by the hystrix. Other birds are a row of flamingos and a bird of prey or vulture (fig. 8, A 1, 2, 3). Fig. 8, A 4 seems to be a stylized little egret with flowing headfeathers. The reptile world is represented by tortoises. The plastic shape of a crocodile was moulded on to a pot. Finally, four insects have to be mentioned (fig. 8, C 1-4).

The species portrayed on the pottery are an addition to those that could be identified from the bones. It seems that all these species could be expected in the valley. The domestic animals were kept in the settlement, the antelopes and pigs roamed in the grassy plains, the large carnivores lived in the woods, the birds belong to the marshy region and the tortoises and crocodiles belong to the river. Birds of prey and vultures circling above the Indian villages are still a common sight.

#### NEVASA—NVS

Present-day Nevasa is a village of regional importance, partly built on an ancient dwelling-mound, situated on the right bank of the Pravara river, before it joins the Godavari river. The Godavari is one of the large rivers of the Deccan, flowing east and ending in the Bay of Bengal. The river formed a broad flat valley, reminiscent of the valley system of the Danube in Central Europe. It seems that the earliest farmers of the northwest Deccan settled on the banks of the Godavari and its tributaries. There were three excavation campaigns (Sankalia, Deo, Ansari and Eberhardt 1960). The bones collected during the first in 1954 were described by Eapen (1960), those of 55/56 and 59/61 are discussed here. The bones of the excavation of 55/56 belong to four periods (fig. 10).

Period VI—Muslim-Maratha	1400-1700 A. D.;
Period V—Indo-Roman	100-300 A. D.;
Period IV—Early historic	300 B. C.—100 A. D.;
Weathered horizon	
Period III—Chalcolithic	1300—1000 B. C.

The bones of 59/61 belong to the Chalcolithic period and are connected with Jorwe ware.

During the excavations of Nevasa, most bones were thrown away, and only a small, in all probability not representative, collection was kept. Although Eapen does not mention it, this also seems to have happened in



1954. In Chalcolithic Nevasa (tables 5-11), *Bos* sp., buffalo, sheep/goat, pig, horse, donkey or wild ass, dog and a small cat were found. In historic Nevasa, most of those animals were also present. Of the wild animals, three antelope species, nilgai, four horned antelope, and black buck can be mentioned. Two species of small carnivores are present, of which one may be the domestic cat, the other a mongoose. Remains of deer, mostly antler fragments, may have belonged to sambar, swamp deer or the spotted deer.

Bones of fowl, probably domesticated, were found in Chalcolithic Nevasa as well as in Muslim-Maratha Nevasa. The remains of a large fowl were found in the Muslim-Maratha layers. A maxilla of a young elephant was collected in the layers of the Indo-Roman period. Tortoise remains seem to have been collected from all periods. Three species could be distinguished. A number of bones of small rodents were found in all layers. It seems that most are of the rat and the bandicoot rat; both are animals with burrowing habits and could have intruded the ancient remains.

In Nevasa the opportunity was missed to see whether there was a change in diet in the Early Historic and Indo-Roman periods. As we cannot even assume that the bias in collecting was always the same, we can learn nothing more than that cattle and small ruminants seem to have been the most frequently slaughtered animals. The species found are indicative of the surroundings, the antelopes needed grassy plains, the deer could live there too, the pig, which is more a forest animal, is absent. The fowl were probably domesticated.

#### INAMGAON—INM

Inamgaon is a dwelling-mound on the right bank of the Ghod river, a tributary of the Bhima, which belongs to the drainage system of the Krishna river, the second, large, east flowing river system of the Deccan. The valley is narrow and the region is very dry at present.

Inamgaon lies on the border of the thorn-scrub region in which, more southward, the ash-mounds are also located. Contrary to the other dwelling-mounds, which were still inhabited, Inamgaon was deserted at c. 700 B. C. At present it has the form of a horse-shoe-shaped sanddune.

Inamgaon was excavated by Dr. Z. D. Ansari and Dr. M. K. Dhavalikar from 1968-71 (fig. 11). Three occupation periods could be distinguished (fig. 4).

Period III—late Jorwe (c. 1000-700 B. C.);

Period II—early Jorwe (c. 1300-1000 B. C.);

Period I—Malwa (c. 1600-1300 B. C.)

In Inamgaon the remains of *Bos* sp. and the small ruminants were most frequently collected. Horse, dog and pig are represented by one bone each. A large number of horn-cores of the black buck was found, two of a nilgai and one of a four-horned antelope. Eight fragments may belong to the spotted deer, and six to the sambar or swamp deer. All these species indicate a relatively open vegetation, and an area covered with grass and bushes.

Two phalanges of an animal that may have been a rhinoceros or an elephant were found, but have still to be identified (fig. 17). A fragment of a heavy long bone must have been of an elephant or rhinoceros. The elephant lives in forests, the rhinoceros prefers swamp and grass regions.

During a short visit to Inamgaon in 1972, I observed that among the bones that were not brought to Poona there were numerous shells of freshwater mussels, which must have been collected in the river. Fish bones were not found, but the river today contains catfish and carp, which can be easily caught (Ansari, pers. comm.). It seems not improbable that the ancient inhabitants of Inamgaon were also fishermen.

## Discussion of the species

The bones were identified as far as was possible without the help of an extensive comparative collection of recent skeletons and with only a few reference works.

The selective collecting of the larger bones by the archaeologists made my task easier because it limited the collection mainly to the remains of the suborder of the Ruminantia. Of those, the Bovidae took the first place, followed by the Suidae and Cervidae. Few remains could be ascribed to the Equidae, Canidae, Felidae and the Muridae. The bones from the Bovidae and the Cervidae could be distinguished easily in most cases. The identification as to species was often difficult or impossible. Although most bones of the large Bovidae belong, in all probability, to the domestic ox (*Bos taurus* in s. s.), we also have to reckon with the presence of the gaur (*Bos gaurus*) and its domestic form the gayal (*Bos gaurus frontalis*), the wild buffalo (*Bubalus*



*bubalis*) and its domestic form (*Bubalus bubalis domesticus*) and the nilgai (*Boselaphus tragocamelus*).

Of the small Bovidae, most bones belong to domestic sheep, *Ovis aries*, and to domestic goat, *Capra hircus*. Here we have to reckon, however, with the possibility that part of the bones may belong to the four-horned antelope, *Tetracerus quadricornis*, to the black buck, *Antelope cervicapra*, or the gazelle, *Gazella gazella*.

The bones were measured if this was possible. Most of the measurements were taken after Duerst (1930). The measurements were taken with a slide-rule, with a precision of 0.5 mm. The circumference of the horn-cores was taken with a cotton thread. It was often difficult to measure the teeth properly when they were covered by the thin crust mentioned earlier. The numbers used are those given by the excavators.

#### CANIDAE

Wolf—*Canis lupus* Linnaeus, 1758

Jackal—*Canis aureus* Linnaeus, 1758

Dhole—*Cuon alpinus* Pallas, 1811

Fox—*Vulpes bengalensis* Shaw, 1800

The Indian fox : *Vulpes bengalensis*, is found everywhere in India. The animal keeps to open country and rarely enters the forest. Many live in cultivated land bordering irrigation canals. The fox is a culture follower.

The dhole : *Cuon alpinus*, is found in central and eastern Asia, it lives in forests but is found occasionally in open steppes.

The wolf : *Canis lupus*, is found in the north and in the dry open plains of peninsular India. The animals may live in forests, but in India they are more common in bare and open regions.

The jackal : *Canis aureus*, is found in nearly any environment, all over India.

In Kodekal, Kayatha III, Nevasa III '55/56, Nevasa '59/61, Inamgaon, Nevasa W and Nevasa V, bones of the Canidae were found.

In India we can expect the above wild species next to the domestic dog. The dhole differs from the other species in one characteristic, in the lower jaw the third molar is missing (Clutton-Brock 1965). Whether there are differences in the long bones I do not know. The wolf is supposed to be slightly larger than the dog, jackal and dhole. The fox is smaller than those species.

Most bones were collected at Nevasa and Inamgaon. Two maxilla were found at Nevasa III, they are badly preserved and dirty (fig. 13). A pre-maxilla may belong to maxilla nr. 4857 x 5. A left and a right maxilla of

one individual were found at Inamgaon (fig. 14 a above, 15 a), it seems that the pre-molars are slightly crowded. A left *proc. orb.* is probably of a second animal. Seven mandibulae collected at Nevasa could be measured (table 15).

In Nevasa W the l. maxilla of a young animal was found with the  $p^3M^1$  and without  $M^2$ .

In Nevasa III '55/56 a l. mandibula of a young animal was found (nr. 6182 Y2). The length of  $M_1$  and the height of the horizontal ramus are so small that we have to reckon with the possibility that it belonged to a fox. A second l. mandibula (nr. 3107 x 4) also seems to be of a young dog (fig. 15 b). Five other mandibulae were found, of which nr. 4227 III '59/61 seems of a slender type (fig. 14 b middle).

In all cases, the teeth were more or less crowded, with  $P_4$  partly screening  $M_1$ . In nr. 256 III '59/61, the  $M_3$  was missing, and no alveole was present (fig. 14 b above). We have to reckon in this case with the possibility that this mandibula may be of a dhole. Because the  $M_3$  may also have been missing in the mandibula of the domestic dog, its absence is not conclusive. Of a fragment of a r. mandibula found at Inamgaon ( $A_2$  4), the labial side was slightly burnt. Another r. mandibula ( $C_3$  4), was that of a young animal (fig. 14a). Carving marks on the inner side of the mandibula seem to indicate that the animal was slaughtered.

In Nevasa III an atlas, a radius and an astragalus were found; in Inamgaon two r. humeri that belonged to large animals.

Clutton-Brock (1965) studied the remains of the Canidae collected at Langhnaj. She came to the conclusion that they probably belonged to the Indian wolf and described them as *Canis cf. lupus pallipes* Sykes, 1831. In Langhnaj no long bones were found, and the mandibulae made it possible to rule out the dhole. Clutton-Brock gave a number of measurements of recent dingo, wolf and domestic dog. The mean values of the skull measurements are given in a table. If we compare the measurements of the maxillae and mandibulae of Nevasa and Inamgaon with those measurements, we see that they fall into the range of the true domestic dog. Only mandibula nr. NVS 1272 III (fig. 14b under) is comparatively sturdy, the horizontal ramus is larger than those of the others, the length of  $M_1$  falls in the upper range of the domestic dog and in the lowest of the wolf, as given by Clutton-Brock. We have thus to reckon with the possibility that the inhabitants of prehistoric Nevasa hunted the fox, the wolf and the Indian wild dog, and kept the domestic dog.

#### FELIDAE

Leopard cat—*Felis bengalensis* Kerr, 1720



Desert cat—*Felis lybica* Foster, 1780

Domestic cat—*Felis catus* Linnaeus

The leopard cat—*Felis bengalensis* is found all over India. The animal frequents grassland, scrub and jungle.

The desert cat—*Felis libica*, is found in the Indian desert region and in the dry zone of central India, also near Poona in the Deccan.

Both the two above mentioned species and the domestic cat can be expected in Nevasa where the cat remains were found. Prashad describes the skull of a cat from Harappa as domesticated, but Conrad (1966) thinks it more likely that it belonged to *Felis ornata* (Indian desert cat). The domestic cat was mentioned for the first time in the textbook of Kautilya (4th/3rd century B. C.).

In Nevasa III, the long bones of a young cat were found (nr. 823H 13). The skull, vertebral column and the bones of the fore and hind feet are missing. The bones seem to have belonged to an animal slightly larger than a present-day domestic European cat. Also from Nevasa III, a l. mandibula of a catlike animal was collected (fig. 15 f), which seems to belong to the same species as the r. mandibula found in Nevasa 1959/61 (fig. 15 c). A r. mandibula (fig. 15 f) from the Weathered horizon, a l. mandibula (fig. 15 c) from Period V, and a r. mandibula from Period VI belong to the same species and in all probability to the domestic cat. The other two mandibulae were found in the oldest layers of Nevasa and probably do not belong to domesticated animals.

(measurements in mm)

	III	W	V	VI
length of :	5053	3254	1543	627
teeth row		22.0	18.0	22.2
M <sub>1</sub>		8.1	6.2	8.5
diastema	(5.5)	4.0	6.0	

Of all five mandibulae only the pars molaris was found and of the two oldest, the M<sub>1</sub> is missing (fig. 15e, f).

The domestic cat is often thought to be the descendant of the desert cat : *Felis lybica*, and first domesticated in the middle of the 2nd millennium B. C. in Egypt. When and how the cat was brought to India is unknown. It is not even certain at all that the cat was domesticated only in Egypt—none of the other species or subspecies of small cats occurring in areas outside Egypt.

## PROBOSCIDAE

## ELEPHANTIDAE

Indian elephant—*Elephas maximus* Linnaeus, 1758

The Indian elephant is still found in the Western Ghats, Orissa, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal and Assam. They frequent areas with tall forests. The Indian elephant is smaller in size than the African. The male has large tusks, the females only small, scarcely protruding, tusks.

In Nevesa V (nr. 5541 I 4), a maxilla of an apparently young animal was found (fig. 16).

In Inamgaon, a fragment of a heavy long bone was collected. It is not possible to tell to what part of the skeleton it belongs. Only elephant and rhinoceros can have such massive bones. For either species the surroundings of Inamgaon did not seem to be too favourable.

There is evidence that as far back as the Indus civilisation the elephant was domesticated (Conrad 1966; Brentjes 1965), although the elephant never became a real domestic animal like others. The time it takes before an elephant can be used for work, results in the majority of the animals being caught when grown up and then tamed and trained.

## RHINCEROTIDAE

Great one-horned rhinoceros—*Rhinoceros unicornis* Linnaeus, 1758

Asiatic two-horned rhinoceros—*Didermoceros sumatrensis* Fisher, 1814

See Indian elephant

## EQUIDAE

Horse—*Equus caballus* Linnaeus

Donkey—*Equus asinus*

Asiatic wild ass—*Equus hemionus* Pallas, 1775

At present two subspecies of the wild ass are found in India; in the north *Equus hemionus Kiang*, the Tibetan wild ass, and in the west in the deserts of the Rann of Cutch and Baluchistan *Equus hemionus Khur*, or the Indian wild ass. The latter subspecies is readily tamed when young. After growing up they become recalcitrant and vicious and cannot ordinarily be trained to accept a harness.

The domestic ass was first domesticated in Egypt at the end of the third millennium B. C. (Boessneck 1953), and was brought from there to Mesopotamia. According to Wheeler (1968) there existed an intensive trade between the Indus Valley cultures and the Near East. Thus it is not unlikely that the domestic ass was known in Western India during the Indus Valley culture.



Prashad (1936) describes the Equid bones from Harappa as *Equus asinus* Linnaeus. This is corroborated by Conrad (1966) who also thinks that the upper jaw fragments and a phalanx II belong to the domesticated ass, but the metacarpi which Prashad also identified as belonging to a domestic ass probably belong to a small horse and a wild ass.

The wild horse, a species that is not indigenous in India, was found north of the Caucasus in Eurasia. At the end of the Ice Age these wild Eurasian horses formed one species with two distinct subspecies, a western and an eastern. According to Nobis (1971) the western species was domesticated around 3000 B. C. in southern Russia, from where it spread to Europe, the Middle East and southern Asia. Zeuner (1963) states that, in any case, in latter periods the Chinese domesticated the local wild horses in China. According to Prashad (1936), and confirmed by Conrad (1966), a l. and a r. lower jaw of a horse were found in Mohenjodaro. Conrad thinks that the metacarpus and the phalanx II from Harappa which were also described as belonging to a horse by Prashad, possibly belonged to a donkey or a wild ass. In any case it is not surprising to find horse remains at ca. 2000 B. C. in India, if the first domestication took place around 3000 B. C. in southern European Russia. In Inamgaon, Nevasa and Navdatoli, Equid remains were collected in small numbers as well. It is difficult, however, to assign the fragments to species with complete certainty. From Inamgaon comes (nr. 1A2 2) a l.  $M^2$  (fig. 18c, table 13), which is thought to belong to a horse. At Navdatoli a large l. radius was collected (fig. 20a) which is also thought to be of a horse. From the same site comes a lower jaw, with  $M_1$ ,  $M_2$  and  $M_3$  (fig. 19a, b), which probably belongs to a domestic donkey, as well as a radius (fig. 20b, table 13). Of a third radius it is not certain whether it belongs to an Equid. At Nevasa III a large l.  $P^4/M^1$  was found, probably belonging to domestic horse (fig. 18b). Also considered to have belonged to a domestic horse are a r.  $M^3$  and a r. and l. *pars incisiva* of Nevasa W. A r. mandibula fragment from Nevasa V probably also belongs to a horse, and a small number of fragmented cheek teeth of a lower jaw probably belong to a young horse (Nevasa?). Finally, a small, badly damaged  $P^4/M^1$  of Nevasa 1959/61 has to be mentioned (fig. 19e) which probably belonged to a donkey (table 13). In the ash-mounds and at Kayatha no equid remains were found.

#### SUIDAE

Indian wild boar—*Sus scrofa cristatus* Wagner, 1839

Domestic pig—*Sus scrofa*

*Sus scrofa cristatus* is considered to be a subspecies of *Sus scrofa* Linnaeus, 1758, and closely related to the European wild boar: *Sus scrofa scrofa*. The



Indian wild pig is distinctive for its sparser coat and its fuller crest of black bristles reaching from the nape right down the back. Osteologically, the skull of the Indian wild boar is considered to be more slender, and the *os lacrimales* of the skull of the Indian wild boar is less elongated, and comparatively higher. The same features are found in the domestic animals.

The Indian wild boar is found in most parts of India.

Little is known about the domestication of the pig in Asia, but it is generally accepted that the pig was domesticated in India. At what time the pig was domesticated it is difficult to say. In the hill settlements of Baluchistan no pig bones were found, this in contrast with Mohenjo-Daro and Harappa (Conrad 1966). The Indian wild boar lives in grass or scanty bush jungle, only sometimes in the forest. The domestic pig found in the villages is a small, high legged, inconspicuous animal, that feeds on garbage.

Pig remains are missing from the surface finds collected at the sites of the ash-mounds in Karnatak. In all other settlements, phase I and II of Kayatha excluded, a few pig bones were collected.

Only in Navdatoli a much larger number of bones, mostly of the upper and lower jaw, were picked up (fig. 21). Most of the lower jaws from Navdatoli were of young animals, only seven belonged to animals with a complete set of cheek teeth (table 15). Of those it seems that six are of domesticated animals (table 16). The  $M_3$  of the seventh jaw exceeds the measurements of those of a skull of an old ♂ wild boar on loan from the collection of the Bombay Natural History Museum (table 15). Although I had no skeletons at my disposal of a recent wild boar and domestic pig, it seems to me that all the long bones that could be measured were of domestic animals. It is interesting that most of the pig jaws are from animals about half a year old, or from animals that were two years old or older. This indicates a policy in the slaughtering of pigs in Navdatoli. In how far this observation is reliable will have to be corroborated by future investigations. According to Prater (1971), wild boar breeds in all seasons, but there is a peak before and after the rainy season. If this should also apply to the prehistoric and the early historic domestic pig, the peak season in Navdatoli for births must have been May and October/November. The killing of half year-old pigs in Navdatoli would then correspond with the birth of new litters of pigs just before and after the rains. Singh (1966) mentions two breeding seasons for contemporary domestic pigs: August/September and February/March.

#### BOVIDAE-CERVIDAE

A large number of genera and species of the Ruminantia are still found

in India, although a number of them are nearly extinct. The species that could be identified belonged to three families: the Suidae (see above), the Cervidae and the Bovidae. The males of the Cervidae have antlers, the males as well as most of the females of the Bovidae have horns.

Although the bones of a number of species can be identified in most cases as to species, still, as they have a large number of characteristics in common, a representative collection of recent skeletons is needed to make this task easier and reliable. During my stay in Poona, I had not the advantage of such a collection and a number of bones could not be identified as to species. An added difficulty is a manifest sexual dimorphism in most species, with the result that the females of one species fall within the size range of the males of a smaller species next to it in size. Table 14, in which the height at the withers is given of a number of species, illustrates this clearly. In most cases it is possible to distinguish the Cervidae from the Bovidae. Both skulls and mandibulae are rather easy to identify and the long bones of the Cervidae have a number of characteristics in common that distinguish them from the Bovidae. The bones of the carpus and tarsus gave difficulties however in identification, especially when damaged.

#### CERVIDAE

One of the most conspicuous features of the Cervidae are the antlers of the males. Antlers are part of the frontal bone of the skull and belong to the skeleton. They grow yearly from a pedicle and are also shed yearly. The period of growing and shedding of antlers is fixed for a species. When ♂♂ skulls are found with antlers, or without, it will enable the archaeozoologist to establish approximately the season in which the animal was hunted if the growing and shedding periods for the region where the material is found are known. Also, when shed antlers are found, the collecting period is known, since shed antlers perish quickly when left lying outside. Antlers are useful material for the manufacturing of tools and ornaments, and were in prehistory widely collected by human beings.

Five deer species can be expected to have been hunted in the areas we are discussing.

Muntjak—*Muntiacus muntjak* Zimmermann, 1780

Chital or spotted deer—*Axis axis* Erxleben, 1777

Barking deer—*Axis porcinus* Zimmermann, 1780

Sambar—*Cervus unicolor* Kerr, 1792

Swamp deer—*Cervus duvauceli* G. Cuvier, 1823

The other Indian species have a more northerly or easterly distribution. The muntjak: *Muntiacus muntjak*, ranges over the larger part of India. The



height at the shoulder of an adult male is from 50-75 cm. It is found in thickly wooded hills and comes out to graze in the outskirts of the forests. The animal is not a culture follower. The young are born at the onset of the rains. The muntjak has a typical skull with small antlers placed on very elongated pedicles. The males have large canines in the upper jaw, which protrude at either side.

The spotted deer or chital : *Axis axis*, is found from the base of the Himalayas to the south of the Peninsula and Ceylon, wherever there is jungle combined with good grazing and enough water. In the arid plains it is unknown. The chital is a culture follower. In Madhya Pradesh and south India antlers are shed in August and September. A well-built stag stands 90 cm. at the shoulder.

Hog deer : *Axis porcinus*. At present, this species occurs on the low alluvial grass plains of North India from Sind and Punjab to Assam. The height at the shoulder is 61 cm. The animals favour grass jungles near river banks or open grass plains, provided the grass is not too high. In upper Sind they live in the scrub jungles of the upper Indus. In Burma they were once common in mangroves. The hog deer is a solitary animal, its young are born in April and May. Clutton-Brock identified the hog deer with certainty in Langhnaj. It is possible that in earlier times the hog deer was also found in the Peninsula.

The sambar : *Cervus unicolor*, is the largest Indian deer. The height at the withers is approximately 140-150 cm. The sambar can be found in the wooded districts of India and Ceylon; it prefers forested hills near cultivated areas. In central and southern India the antlers are shed between the end of March and mid-April. The young are born at the commencement of the rains in late May or June.

The swamp deer : *Cervus duvauceli*, is limited to India and is nearly extinct. In former times, two forms were found, the real swamp-dwelling deer of the Terai, Uttar Pradesh, Assam and the Sunderbans; and a form that was found in the hard open grounds of Madhya Pradesh. It is thought that altogether there remain about 4,000 animals of both races.

The identification of the few deer remains found in Kannekolor, Kayatha, Navdatoli, Nevasa and Inamgaon as to species was in most cases impossible. It was, however, possible to make a good guess. Most bones collected are shed antlers and antler fragments, but a small number of mandibulac and long bones were also picked up. We have to admit of the possibility that a few of the astragali identified as *Bos* sp. belong to *Cervus unicolor* (fig. 37, 38, table 15). Antlers were collected at Kayatha, Navdatoli Nevasa and Inamgaon. Most of them are fragments, and could be divided

into three groups : 1. relatively heavy fragments of the "main beam" found in Nevasa. They could be of *Cervus duvauceli* or *Axis axis*; 2. smaller, flattened, fragments with a thick cortex and fine spongiosa. It is possible that these are not antlers but horn cores of a large gazelle; they are found in Nevasa and possibly Kayatha; 3. the third group are cut off antler tines, which can belong to *Cervus unicolor*, *Cervus duvauceli* or *Axis axis* as well. Three shed antlers were collected, two at Navdatoli and one at Inamgaon. One of those from Navdatoli had a circumference of the rose of approximately 150 mm. A recent ♂ skull of *Axis axis*, on loan from the Bombay Museum of Natural History, had a circumference of 160 mm. The other two antlers could not be measured. Of both antlers the main beam was cut off just above the rose, the first tine was present. This first tine has a "bump" that seems characteristic for *Axis axis* (fig. 28). The antler from Inamgaon was much smaller; part of its main beam was preserved. The circumference of the rose was approximately 85 mm. It is possible that this antler is from *Axis porcinus*.

The open vegetation of the dry thorn scrub forest around Inamgaon would have been a favourable biotope for this deer.

In Inamgaon a mandibula (fig. 22a) was found, with the deciduous molars  $p_1p_2p_3$ . The  $p_3$  is deerlike, with two additional columns that are not found with the Bovidae. Three mandibulae of adult animals, and a *pars incisiva* of a young deer (fig. 22 b), were found in Nevasa. The adult mandibulae are too large for *Axis axis*, but could be of *Cervus unicolor* or *Cervus duvauceli*. In Inamgaon the distal part of a humerus was found. The bipartition by a shallow ridge of the *fossa coronoidales* is a clear indication that it belonged to deer. A similar fragment was found in Kannekolur. The width of the trochlea, 35.0; 37.0 mm. is less than that of small-sized red deer in Europe. In all probability those humeri are of *Axis axis*.

Both in Nevasa and Inamgaon one radius was found, and since the measurements of those two fall well into the range of the above mentioned *Cervus elaphus*, it is possible that they are from *Cervus unicolor* or *Cervus duvauceli*.

It seems that a badly-damaged bone fragment found at Nevasa could be a radius (63 B I '60).

A small part of the prox. ant. surface of a metacarpus in Kayatha could be of a deer. In Kayatha the diaphysis of a metatarsus of a small-sized deer, possibly *Axis axis* was collected. In Inamgaon 4 phalanx I were found, with the same length as those of *Bos* sp; they are, however, more slender. Whether they are from *Cervus unicolor* or from *Boselaphus* it is difficult to say (fig. 22c). Also in Inamgaon, a number of phalanx I were found, which are



slightly larger than those of sheep or goat. Two groups can be distinguished. Whether they are of *Axis* sp., *Gazella gazella* or *Antilope cervicapra* it is impossible to say at this moment.

Summarizing, we can say that although the remains of the Cervidae are scarce they may represent four species, *Cervus unicolor*, *Axis axis*, *Axis porcinus* and *Cervus duvauceli*. No indications for the existence of *Muntiacus muntjak* were found.

The antlers of Navdatoli, if they are of *Axis axis* may have been collected in August or September. The collected, and cut-to-pieces, antlers of *Axis axis* and *Cervus* sp. indicate that the prehistoric inhabitants of Inamgaon, Nevasa and Navdatoli used them as raw material for the manufacture of objects. The long bones indicate that deer were occasionally hunted or trapped, and used for food.

## BOVIDAE

### Subfamily Bovinae.

Tribe Boselaphini. *Boselaphus*—*Boselaphus tragocamelus* Pallas, 1766  
*Tetracerus*—*Tetracerus quadricornis* Blainville, 1816

Tribe Bovine. *Bos*—*Bos gaurus* H. Smith, 1827  
*Bos taurus* Linnaeus

*Bubalus*—*Bubalus bubalis* Linnaeus, 1758  
 Tribe Antilopini. *Antilope*—*Antilope cervicapra* Linnaeus, 1758  
*Gazelle*—*Gazella gazella* Pallas 1766

Tribe Caprini. *Capra*—*Capra hircus* Linnaeus  
*Ovis*—*Ovis aries* Linnaeus

The main characteristic of this family is the horns, carried, in most species, by males as well as females. Exceptions are the nilgai and the black buck, the females of which species are hornless. The horns of domesticated sheep and goat tend to be smaller than those of the wild species, and finally to disappear altogether. Horns are part of the skin and are built up, just like nails, from ceratin. They cover the horn cores which are, like the antlers of Cervidae, part of the skeleton. Contrary to the antlers of the Cervidae, horn cores are not shed annually. The horn grows a little every year and in some cases the growth-rings can give a rough indication of the age of the animal. Horns are seldom found in an archaeological context. The horn-core is found frequently.

The bones of the Bovidae could in most cases be separated from those of the Cervidae.

Nilgai or blue bull : *Boselaphus tragocamelus*. The nilgai is a typical Indian species. It is found from the base of the Himalayas to Mysore. The animals

shun dense forest, and live in undulating plains covered with grass and scrub. The nilgai is not a culture follower, but freely enters cultivated areas where the animals damage the crops. In many parts of India they are not hunted, because they are considered to be near relations of cattle and thus sacred. An adult male stands 130-140 cm at the shoulder. According to Clutton-Brock (1965) the nilgai has the same overall size as the sambar and the bones have the same size too. The nilgai, however, belongs to the Bovidae, the sambar to the Cervidae, and it will be possible to distinguish between most of their bones. This proves, however, to be difficult for the astragali (fig. 35, 37); (see also cattle).

In Navdatoli, Nevasa III '55/56, Nevasa '59/61 and Inamgaon a few bones of the nilgai were collected.

Typical are the short, sturdy horn cores of the males, five of which were found: two in Nevasa III, and three in Navdatoli. The horn core is roughly triangular at the base, compact, without a hollow, and slightly bent forward (fig. 23a).

In Navdatoli two mandibulae were found that belong, in all probability, to the nilgai. They have the same length measurements as those of small cattle, but are more slender (table 15; fig. 23 b, c). In Inamgaon the proximal part of a metacarpus was found together with the distal parts of two metatarsi. The metacarpus is neither of a deer nor of a small ox. The anterior-posterior depth is larger with relation to the proximal width than in cattle (table 15, fig. 24 b). The two metatarsi are too small for cattle. The fascicular groove that reaches down to the trochlea shows that they are not the metatarsi of a deer (fig. 24c, d). In the *Cervidae*, this groove always ends at the distal foramen. A number of the small astragali, described as *Bos* sp., may belong to *Boselaphus*, although they could also be of *Cervus unicolor* (see *Bos* sp.) (fig. 35, 37).

Clutton-Brock measured the astragali of a number of recent *Boselaphus* and *Cervus unicolor* skeletons in the collection of the British Museum (Natural History) in London. According to those measurements one astragalus from Kayatha III, and two from Inamgaon III, could belong to either species.

#### OTHER SKELETAL ELEMENTS

As I had no nilgai skeleton at my disposal for comparison, it is possible that some of the smaller bones described as *Bos* sp. may belong to *Boselaphus*; the possibility that this is so is small, however.

The group of phalanx I, already discussed with the *Cervidae*, may also contain bones of this species.



Four-horned antelope or chowsingha *Tetracerus quadricornus*. The four-horned antelope belongs, with the nilgai, to the *Boselaphini*, but is considerably smaller. An adult male has a shoulder height of 65 cm. The females are hornless. Typical for the males are the four small horns, the posterior of which reaches a length of 80-100 mm, the anterior of 10-25 mm. The four-horned antelope is found in peninsular India south of the Himalayas. It favours lightly wooded, undulating or hilly country. It needs water and seldom lives far from it. Young animals are born from October to February. The four-horned antelope is easily tamed when caught young.

At Inamgaon two r. posterior horn cores were collected. The cross section of the horn cores is more or less round (fig. 25a, b), they are slightly curved, solid and the tips are missing. One was of a comparatively young animal.

In Nevasa two right mandibulae were found which did not belong to one of the Caprini. They were small and slender (fig. 25c, d; table 15) and compared very well with the mandibula of a skull on loan from the Museum of Natural History in Bombay (table 15). A maxilla, also found at Nevasa, may be from the fourhorned antelope. It was, however, so thickly covered with the "crust" that certain identification was impossible. It seemed to have belonged to a young animal, and the second and third deciduous molars were still present.

The surroundings both of Nevasa and Inamgaon would have suited the fourhorned antelope. There are indications that in ca. 1000 B.C. the country must have been rather open without heavy forest.

#### BOVINI

Wild cattle—*Bos primigenius namadicus*

Dom. cattle—*Bos taurus* Linnaeus

Gaur—*Bos gaurus* H. Smith, 1827

Gayal or mithan—*Bos gaurus frontalis*

Wild buffalo—*Bubalus bubalis* Linnaeus, 1758

Domestic buffalo—*Bubalus bubalis domesticus*

Two wild species of the tribe of the Bovini are still living in India. *Bos gaurus* is mainly a hill animal at present, but comes down now and then for pasture. A large adult bull stands 195 cm at the withers, the average is 180 cm. In Madhya Pradesh the young are born between December and March. The gaur seems a culture fleer.

The domesticated gaur, the gayal or mithan : *Bos gaurus frontalis*, is found in the east in Assam and Bangla Desh, but not in the western part of the country, where the settlements here discussed are situated. This does not



exclude the possibility that in earlier times the mithan could have been found more westward than at present. We know little or nothing about the domestication history of the gayal (Simoons and Simoons 1968).

The wild buffalo : *Bubalus bubalis*, is found in the grass jungles of Nepal and Assam. In the south there are still a few herds in Orissa and the adjoining part of Madhya Pradesh. In the northeast the buffalo needs grass jungles in the neighbourhood of swamps, but in the south the animal lives in drier country with scattered trees and open expanses of grass. The wild buffalo is a culture follower, and enters cultivated areas. An adult male stands 170 cm. at the shoulder. The young are born in March, April and May.

Domesticated buffalo : *Bubalus bubalis domesticus*. The buffalo must have been domesticated in Asia, possibly in more than one locality, but we know very little about the process. According to Cockrill (1967), two major groups can be recognised: river buffaloes, which are found mostly in India, and swamp buffaloes, which are most plentiful in the great rice-growing lands east and south of Burma. The river buffalo prefers clear running water to mud, and is more suitable for milk production than the swamp buffalo. The swamp buffalo needs to wallow in mud. In 1961, there were in India approximately 51 million buffaloes, and 6 major buffalo breeds can be distinguished (Harbans Singh 1966).

According to Conrad (1966) some buffalo bones and teeth were found in Mohenjodaro. In Harappa also, bones of buffalo were found, according to Prashad (1936). Buffaloes are, however, less frequently depicted than cattle in the Indus Valley culture, and it is not clear whether the depicted animals were domesticated or wild.

Both in Navdatoli and Nevasa, much flattened horn cores with a distinct keel at the inner and outer curve were found which belong, in all probability, to the domestic buffalo (fig. 27a, b). In Inamgaon, the distal part of a metatarsus was found that seems to belong to a domestic buffalo, since the ratio between distal depth and distal width is the same as that of a wild buffalo measured by Clutton-Brock (table 15, fig. 39). The measurements are, however, much smaller, and are the same as those of *Bos* sp.

Wild cattle—*Bos primigenius namadicus* Falconer, 1859.

Cattle—*Bos taurus*.

No wild taurine cattle are found in India today, and it is not known whether in the period of first domestication, the wild *Bos primigenius namadicus* could still have been present in the country.

Nowadays it is generally accepted that the domestic cattle found in India are descendents of *Bos primigenius*, whether it was *Bos primigenius primigenius*

Bojanus, 1827 from West Asia, or *Bos primigenius namadicus* from India (Herre and Röhrs 1973). The most characteristic features of the present-day Asian taurine cattle are the dew lap and hump, which features distinguish it from European cattle. The earliest known cattle-remains are those from the Quetta Valley and the Zhob region in Baluchistan, (Fairservis 1956, 1959) dated  $\pm 3500$  B.C. Not only bones were found, but prehistoric man left potsherds behind, on which he has depicted cattle with well-developed humps. The next information comes from the Indus civilisation. From this civilisation, too, not only bones were found, but cattle depicted on seals and pottery. Cattle figurines were made of copper and clay. The majority of those cattle are humped, but also hump-less animals were portrayed. As far as the Indus civilisation is concerned, we have thus to reckon with at least two different breeds of cattle, one with and one without a hump. At present, most of the cattle in India have more or less well developed humps. Harbans Singh (1966) distinguishes 26 major breeds. The humpless breeds are all imported from Europe. Olsen (1960) tried to work out the osteological difference between humped and hump-less cattle. The most characteristic difference is found in the *spina dorsalis* of the *thoracic vertebrae*. In the humped cattle they broaden dorsally, are flattened, and have a cleft due to the developed hump. Only one *spina dorsalis* of a *thoracic vertebrae*, which showed the peculiarities ascribed above, was found in Inamgaon. Of the other characteristics described by Olsen, only the flattening of the trochlea of the humerus was found in one piece collected in Nevasa 1959/61. That no more bones clearly show the characteristics described by Olsen can have several explanations. Firstly the bones from the prehistoric settlement were badly damaged; secondly Olsen worked with humped cattle bred in the U.S.A.; and thirdly the possibility exists that some of the bones were of hump-less cattle. The finds from Inamgaon and Nevasa 1959/61 indicate, however, that at 1000 B.C. at least part of the cattle in this region had humps.

From the foregoing discussion it will be clear that we have to reckon with the existence of three wild species of the Bovidae and their domesticated forms, of which the domestic cattle can be humped or hump-less. In both wild and domestic Bovidae there exists a marked difference between the males and females, and to complicate the issue further we also have to consider the existence of castrates. It is evident that it will be difficult to identify the bones of the Bovidae found in prehistoric settlements in India to species as long as no data are known about the single species, the difference between the sexes, and the influence of castration on the skeleton. Even in Europe, where only two wild species of the Bovidae existed and only one was domesticated, it often proves difficult for the archaeozoologist to identify the



Bovidae remains with certainty, and often they differ in opinion about which remains belong to wild and which to domesticated animals, especially if found in Neolithic settlements. In the following discussion of the bones of the Bovini they will be described as *Bos* sp. or cattle. Most of them may actually belong to domesticated cattle: *Bos taurus* L., with or without hump.

#### BOS SP.

It appears that, during excavations, various policies of bone collecting were followed at all the sites discussed. At Navdatoli, a large number of horn cores, upper and lower jaws were collected; long bones were nearly absent. At Kayatha however, nearly all the bones collected were long bones. At Inamgaon, skull as well as long bones were taken. As none of the complexes can give us any idea about the prehistoric reality, we will discuss the remains of *Bos* sp. found at all the sites as one complex.

#### Horn Cores

Most horn cores come from Navdatoli, a few from Nevasa and Inamgaon. Horn cores of cattle have a round or oval cross-section. The horn core of the buffalo is flattened or oval. The horn cores of the only gaur skull at my disposal were rounder than those of the wild buffalo measured by Clutton-Brock, but less round than those of the majority of horn cores found at Navdatoli (fig. 26).

One horn core from Navdatoli and one found at Inamgaon, both from unknown layers, differ from the others in being nearly totally round in cross-section. One horn core, nr. 2872 (fig. 27b) from Nevasa III, is flattened with a distinct keel both along the inner and the outer curve. Nr. 3395 from Navdatoli is flattened in the same way, but without keel (fig. 27b). A second horn core, also collected in Nevasa, is also flattened. Unfortunately the base is missing (it may belong to *Bubalus bubalis*). It seems that those horn cores could be identified as *Bubalus* (the small size makes it likely that they are from domestic buffaloes: *Bubalus bubalis domesticus*.) A horn core collected at Navdatoli, NVT nr. 2654, is small and sturdy, and is more flattened at the base than the other horn cores. A distinctive keel is missing however, so I counted it among *Bos* sp. (fig. 27c). In my opinion, all the other horn cores belong, without exception, to domestic cattle (fig. 28—31a). Whether those cattle were humped or hump-less it is difficult to say. It seemed that most of the horns were pointing sideways, and not upwards as is found in the present-day cattle in Maharashtra.

Two horn cores from Navdatoli have a faint depression at their bases (fig. 31a). Similar features have been described for European horn cores.



There, the phenomenon was thought to be the result of the fastening of a yoke on the horns. In Maharashtra, however, I have so far only seen cattle with the yoke fastened on the neck.

#### Atlas

At most sites and in most layers one or more atlases were collected. Most of them were small, broken and only four could be measured. At NVS W (nr. 3108) a very large and heavy piece was found, which belongs to *Bos gaurus* or the wild buffalo—*Bubalus bubalis*. The other two measurable pieces from Nevasa are small and fall into the size range given by Grigson (manuscript) for Bengali Zebu. A fourth atlas is larger than the former and falls into the size-range of three Zebus in the collection of the Leiden Museum (Netherlands). These skeletons probably belong to animals which come from Indonesia. (Grigson manuscript)

#### Epistropheus

The epistropheus was also found in most layers. In a number of cases it could be measured. The largest was found at Kodekal, the smallest at Nevasa.

#### Other vertebrae

At most sites, vertebrae were collected. They were generally damaged. One *spina thoracalis* from Inamgaon (fig. 31c) had the dorsal broadening and cleft that is typical for the humped Zebu cattle. This piece is the only direct indication that, at least in Inamgaon, humped cattle were kept.

#### Maxilla

In Nevasa and Navdatoli, a number of maxillae with milk teeth were found. In some cases, the  $p^2$  had a ridge at the posterior side. Because this feature was not familiar to me I considered the possibility that they might belong to *Boselaphus*. A weakness of this theory was the lack of other skeletal elements that could possibly be ascribed to the nilgai. Whether this ridge can be a feature of *Bos indicus* I do not know. Olsen (1960) does not mention it. Maxillae of adult animals were collected at most of the sites. Those from Nevasa and Navdatoli could be measured. It seems that some of the animals from Nevasa III were slightly larger than those from Navdatoli (table 15).

#### Mandibulae

Most mandibulae of young animals were collected at Navdatoli and Nevasa. It appears that the mandibulae of Nevasa were also slightly larger

than those of the animals from other sites. Mandibulae of adult animals were collected at most of the sites.  $M_3$  was the tooth found most frequently. It seems that the length of some of the  $M_3$  of Navdatoli and Nevasa III exceeds those of the other settlements.

#### Scapulae

Only a few fragments of scapulae were collected. Scapulae are easily damaged during the butchering process, and when fragments are not collected, the scapulae tends to be missing in a collection. A number of the articular ends of scapulae were available, and could be measured. These measurements could be compared with those of a ♀ and ♂ *Boselaphus tragocamelus*, and ♀ and ♂ *Bos gaurus*, *Bos gaurus frontalis* and *Bubalus bubalis* of the British Museum (table 15) as well as with the measurements taken by Grigson (manuscript) of recent zebu cattle in the 'Rijksmuseum van Natuurlijke Historie' at Leiden in the Netherlands and the 'Royal Museum' at Calcutta. The few subfossil specimens are larger than those of the nilgai, fall into the range of *Bos gaurus* and *Bos gaurus frontalis* but are smaller than the scapula of the wild buffalo, *Bubalus bubalis*.

#### Humerus

The humerus is a large bone, the distal end is compact and difficult to destroy. The proximal end is more brittle and is often destroyed during butchering, or gnawed at by scavenging dogs. Owing to this sturdiness, a number of distal ends were well preserved and collected. Two groups can be distinguished. The first has a width of the trochlea of between 59-76 mm, the second of between 78-82 mm. The trochlea width of a large humerus was 106 mm. This piece probably belonged to a wild buffalo. A humerus with a width of the trochlea of 94 mm was collected in Nevasa (NVS. nr. 1466). The width of the trochlea of the ♂ Gaur in the British Museum Collection measured 93.5. Whether those groups represent ♀♀ and ♂♂, two or more different species, or domestic races is difficult to say at this moment. Conrad (1966) points out that hump-less as well as humped cattle were depicted in the Indus Valley culture. Allchin (1961) also mentions the remains of small and large cattle found in the ash-mound of Utnur, which he thinks may correspond with the large and small breeds of humped cattle that are still found in that region at present.

A r. humerus (Nevasa '59/61) has the straight distal surface of the trochlea at the medial side, which according to Olsen is one of the characteristics of humped cattle. The other humeri show a more curved surface like those of European cattle. To me, this does not seem to be conclusive evidence,



It only indicates that the study of more material may give an answer to the question—in which ratio cattle with and without hump were slaughtered.

#### Radius

The proximal and distal parts of the radius are resistant, and even when the bones are broken for the extraction of marrow, they are often not seriously damaged. The proximal part could be measured. It appears that at least two groups can be distinguished; the first group has a max. prox. width of between 85-94 mm, the second of between 72.0-80.5. The numbers are too small however, to be relevant. The limits Grigson found for the Leiden animals were 82.5 and 93.5 and those for the Bengali animals at Calcutta 67-81. These measurements were 59.0 and 60.0 for the ♂ and ♀ *Boselaphus tragocamelus* of the British Museum. Those of *Bos gaurus* (♀ and ♂) 86 and 100 mm, of *Bos gaurus frontalis* 85.0 mm, and of the wild buffalo 116.0 mm. It seems therefore improbable that any of the bones belonged to the nilgai or the wild buffalo.

#### Ulna

The ulna is often badly damaged during butchering, and most of the fragments were not collected. The only ulna found at Kodekal seems to have belonged to a rather large animal.

#### Metacarpus

The metacarpus and metatarsus are solid bones, which are often broken into two or three parts to extract marrow, leaving the proximal and distal epiphysis undamaged (fig. 34). According to Clutton-Brock (1965) the distal end of the metapodia of the buffalo is wider but not deeper than those of cattle. This enables the toes to have a better possibility of spreading to a certain degree, to facilitate walking in mud. To what extent this is also applicable to the river buffalo I do not know. Altogether, little is known about the differences in the skeletons of cattle and buffalo. Clutton-Brock measured the metacarpus of a wild buffalo, and compared it with four of *Bos gaurus*, one of *Bos indicus* and two of *Bos frontalis* of the British Museum collection. We can calculate the ratio distal depth x 100/distal width, which should be lower for the buffalo than for cattle (fig. 33). The ratio for the wild buffalo is 46.6. The majority of the calculated ratios for the prehistoric sites is between 49-56. Two bones of Inamgaon gave ratios of 47.5 and 49, respectively. Two other bones of Inamgaon have ratios that are higher, 59 and 59.5. The ratios of the two metacarpi of *Bos frontalis* measured by Clutton-Brock are 59.3 and 60; the bones were, however, much larger than those of Inamgaon. Three of the four metacarpi of *Bos gaurus* have the same



index as that of the *Bos* sp. here discussed : 54.0; 55.6; 56.8; the fourth has a ratio of 58.3. It seems that the gayal has a sturdier metacarpus than the gaur. The width is in two cases slightly larger than that of *Bos* sp. The distal width of the metacarpi of Langhnaj is also larger, the ratio depth/width, however, lies between those of the *Bos* sp. and *Bubalus bubalis*.

The only thing that seems certain is that no *Bubalus bubalis* is present in the metacarpus samples. It seems, further more, that *Bos gaurus* is more slender than *Bos frontalis*, and that two bones of Inamgaon with a low ratio could belong to *Bubalus bubalis domesticus*, and the two other to *Bos frontalis*. The possibility that three large bones from Nevasa III with a width of 53.2; 54.2; 53.5 belonged to *Bos gaurus*, cannot be ruled out altogether. The majority of the remaining metacarpi belongs in all probability to *Bos* sp. This is also corroborated by the measurements of the recent metacarpus of *Bos indicus* in the collection of the British Museum. The measurements sometimes exceed those of the skeletons in the collection of the Royal Museum in Calcutta, and correspond with those of the measurements of the skeletons in Leiden. (Grigson, manuscript).

#### Pelvis

Only a few pelvis bones were collected.

#### Femur

The proximal and distal epiphysis of the femur are brittle and easily damaged. In butchering the femur is mostly broken up into many smaller fragments, and only a few have been collected.

#### Tibia

The distal end is the most frequently collected part. The measurements suggest the existence of a group of larger and smaller-sized animals (table 15).

#### Metatarsus

The metatarsus is, like the metacarpus, often broken up into two or three parts. The depth/width ratio was calculated for the distal epiphysis. What was surmised for the metacarpus, applies to the metatarsus as well (fig. 36). Clutton-Brock (1965) also measured the metatarsi of the animals mentioned above.

The depth/width ratio for the distal part of the bones of the prehistoric sites lies between 51.5 and 61.5 (fig. 35). One metatarsus of Navdatoli had a ratio of 64.0. The ratio of *Bos gaurus* and *Bos frontalis* lies between 59.6-63.5. The ratios of two metatarsi that may belong to *Boselaphus tragocamelus*

are 73 and 74. The ratio of a recent ♀ *Boselaphus* is actually 74.0. The ratio of *Bubalus bubalis* is 50.7. One bone from Inamgaon has a ratio that compares with that of the buffalo. The bone is, however, much smaller and could only have belonged to a domesticated animal. A metatarsus from Navdatoli and one from Kayatha, have a larger ratio than those of the others, 64.0 and 66.7. In general the evidence indicates that domestic buffalo was found in Inamgaon, and that it might be possible that *Bos gaurus* was hunted or domesticated in the west. Most of the bones seemed, however, to have belonged to *Bos taurus*.

#### Astragalus

The astragalus is often found in large numbers in prehistoric settlements; it is a solid bone, not easily destroyed (fig. 37). It proved difficult to distinguish between the astragalus of small *Bos* sp., *Cervus unicolor* and *Boselaphus tragocamelus*. Clutton-Brock measured six astragali of *Cervus unicolor* and three of the *Boselaphus tragocamelus*. She found that the length measurements for the two species are the same and that the ratio width trochlea/length does not differentiate them. They lie within the limits of the *Bos* sp. astragali collected at Kayatha, Navdatoli and Inamgaon. Two bones of Inamgaon and one of Kayatha I are considered to belong to *Boselaphus tragocamelus*, because their width is smaller than those of the others.

When we plot the length against the width of the trochlea in a diagram (fig. 38), a slight gap shows between 56.5 and 58.0 mm. The length of the measured astragali of the sambar and nilgai is smaller than 61.5. Clutton-Brock did not measure the astragali of the other *Bovini*. It seems that the astragalus of Nevasa III, with a length of 85.0, may have belonged to *Bos gaurus*.

In the diagram (fig. 38) the Langhnaj measurements are plotted as well. Three Langhnaj bones have a length of between 62 and 74 mm, three other bones are larger than the Wg bones, but smaller than the large astragalus from Nevasa III, which measured 85.0 mm, and is as large as the astragalus of a ♂ *Bos gaurus* of the collection of the British Museum (Nat. Hist.). We can surmise that the larger number of the astragali belonged to *Bos* sp., but that three are of *Boselaphus tragocamelus*, and a few other may be of *Cervus unicolor*, although it is not likely. The astragali of Nevasa III might belong to the wild gaur. The measurements of zebu cattle in the collection of the Royal Museum in Calcutta range from 56.6-75.4 and those of the Leiden Collection from 70.0-82.5 mm. (Grigson op. cit.).



### Calcaneum

Only a small number of measurable calcanea were found. It appears that the calcanea of Nevasa III are slightly larger than those of Kayatha II, Navdatoli and Inamgaon III. Nr. 3934 of Nevasa IV is exceptionally large, and may have belonged to a wild bovid. The calcaneum of the ♂ *Bos gaurus* of the British Museum (Nat. Hist.) collection measured 175.0 mm. The measurements of zebu cattle given by Grigson are, for those in the collection of the Royal Museum in Calcutta : 99 and 111; for the specimens in the Leiden collection : 138-166; and for those of the Royal Veterinary College in London : 147-158. (Grigson op. cit.).

### Phalanges I, II and III

At all sites a comparatively large number of phalanges have been discovered. Phalanges are often undamaged. It is difficult to distinguish the phalanges from fore and hind feet.

Phalanx I. At all sites phalanx I shows the same variation, only NVS 2423 '59/61 is slightly larger. INM III C 4 4 is small. This specimen may belong to *Boselaphus tragocamelus*.

Phalanx II. The measurements of phalanx II also seem to be fairly constant.

Phalanx III. The collected phalanx III seemed more varied : large and small, sturdy and slender pieces have been found. In Kayatha II, the maximum length lies between 47 and 67 mm, in Inamgaon III, between 52.5 and 71.0 mm. It is difficult to make specific identifications, but most of them may belong to *Bos* sp.

### SLAUGHTERING AGE (Table 16)

At Kayatha, one maxilla and three mandibulae were of animals younger than three years old when slaughtered. Most animals were killed when three years old or older. At Inamgaon, one mandibula was of an approximately half-year old animal, the others of animals of three years old or older. At Navdatoli, the majority of the maxillae and mandibulae collected seem to be of 3 year old and older animals; the same applies to Nevasa. It seems that most of the cattle reached maturity before being slaughtered, although the number of adult animals is possibly too high because the small, fragmented jaws of young animals might not have been collected. For determining the age at the time of death, the data are used which were given by Ellenberger and Baum (1943) for later maturing European cattle. The remains of the Indian cattle must also have belonged to late-maturing races, as Singh (1966) remarks that "under Indian village conditions, cattle are in general mature



at the age of approximately three years". This is actually also the age for the old European landraces.

#### TRIBE ANTELOPINE

Blackbuck or Indian antelope—*Antelope cervicapra*. The blackbuck favours open plains covered with scrubs or cultivation. It avoids dense forest. Blackbuck is essentially a culture-follower and not long ago it was still found in large numbers all over India (Schaller 1967). Although the blackbuck seems to be the most intensively hunted species since prehistory in India, it is only in the last decades that the number of animals reached nearly zero and the species is even threatened with extinction. The blackbuck ♂ is the animal most frequently depicted on Navdatoli pottery, it is part of Hindu and Buddhist art, and played an important role in the Moghul paintings. The hide of the male blackbuck was important both in the Hindu (Hubert et al. 1899) and the Buddhist religions. A torso of the well-known Buddha of Shanshi shows him wearing a blackbuck skin with the head and paws still attached to it.

An adult buck stands 80 cm at the shoulder. The females are smaller. The males carry characteristically tightly wound, straight horns. The stature of the blackbuck ♂♂ is the same as those of the spotted deer and domestic sheep and goat. The females may have the stature of a gazelle.

No skeletons of the blackbuck or gazelle were available for comparison in Poona, but skeletons seen in European museums gave me the impression that the gazelle skeleton is more slender than that of chital, sheep and goat. The blackbuck breeds at all seasons. It seems that the blackbuck is easily tamed and in Moghul art it is often depicted when being fed or led on a leash by beautiful women. One picture shows a blackbuck male adorned with brass horn-tips with streaming ribbons.

Remains of the blackbuck could be identified in all the settlements except in those of the south. The horn core was most frequently found (fig. 40a, b, c, d). Only two mandibula could be identified, one from Navdatoli and one from Nevasa III (table 15)(fig. 40e). It is possible that the bones of the blackbuck are very similar to those of sheep and goat. One proximal part of a metacarpus was found that seems more slender than that of a sheep/goat. As it was not of a deer we have to consider that it may be of a blackbuck or a gazelle. The many horn cores may have belonged to skins which were used in ritual rebirth practices (Hubert et al. 1899). The many pictures of the tamed blackbuck raise the question whether the blackbuck was ever domesticated in India, or semi-domesticated.

Chinkara or Indian gazelle—*Gazella gazella*

The male chinkara stands 65 cm at the withers. It is a graceful little animal found in northwestern and central India. It lives in waste lands with scattered bush and thin jungle, and in deserts. The chinkara needs little water. Contrary to the blackbuck they are culture fleers and shun man. The chinkara breeds at all seasons. The horns of chinkara are gracefully curved. At Navdatoli two mandibulae (fig. 32b) of the chinkara were collected (table 4). The mandibula is more compact and also smaller than that of the four-horned antelope. The metacarpus mentioned above for the blackbuck could be of a gazelle. The fact that the animals shun man and live in small herds may account for the fact that they appear to have been less frequently hunted than the blackbuck.

## TRIBE CAPRINI

Osteologically it is often difficult or impossible to distinguish between sheep and goat, especially when the bones are badly preserved or broken into small fragments. Boessneck, Müller and Teichert (1964) showed, however, that in a number of cases, when the bones are well preserved, it is possible to determine, with a degree of certainty, which bones belong to sheep and which to goats. Ellerman and Morrison Scott (1951) described the following differences between the skulls of wild sheep and goat.

*Ovis:*

5. Horns of males either in a spiral with the tips directed outwards, or bent in an arc of a circle with the tips pointing either forwards and slightly inwards, or towards each other behind the head.
6. Coronal suture projecting forward at an angle; lambdoidal suture forming a more or less straight line.
7. Lachrymal pit well-developed, or at least with its upper edge forming a distinct longitudinal ridge on the lachrymal bone.
8. Infraorbital foramen small and with a well-defined rim all around it; its diameter about equal to the length of the last upper premolar.
9. Upper ends of praemaxillae not wedged between the nasals and the maxillae.

*Capra:*

5. Horns scimitar-like and bent back in a more or less vertical plane, or twisted like a screw and pointing up or bent backwards over the neck in a single spiral turn with the tips pointing inwards and up.



6. Coronal suture straight; lambdoidal suture projecting forward in an angle
7. No lachrymal pit or longitudinal ridge on the lachrymal bone.
8. Infraorbital foramen large and with no well-defined rim anteriorly; its dorso-ventral diameter greater than the length of the last premolar.
9. Upper ends of the praemaxilla wedged between the nasals and the maxillae.

Ellerman and Morrisson Scott *op. cit.* recognise five species of sheep and goat each in Eurasia.

For sheep they are :

*Ovis ammon*, *Ovis canadensis*, *Ovis laristanica*, *Ovis musimon*, *Ovis orientalis*.

For goat they are:

*Capra caucasica*, *Capra falconeri*, *Capra hircus*, *Capra ibex*, *Capra pyrenaica*.

On sheep Ellerman and Morrisson Scott (*op. cit.*) remark that the characteristics of the four species found in Eurasia are distributed in a mosaic fashion and no one or two characteristics suffice to separate one from another. Even combining all the available characters it is difficult to draw a clear line between the reduced number of species here recognized. Perhaps it is better to consider all the sheep species as subspecies of one species.

#### Goat—*Capra* Linnaeus

Of the goat, three of the above-mentioned species still live in northern India. The domestic goat is spread all over the country.

Markhor—*Capra falconeri* Wagner, 1839. This species is still found in Afghanistan, Kashmir, Punjab and Baluchistan. An adult male may stand 95–100 cm at the withers according to Prater (*op. cit.* 1971). It has straight corkscrew-wound horns.

Ibex—*Capra ibex* Linnaeus, 1758. This species is found in Kashmir, Northern Punjab to Kumaon and in Afghanistan. It does not occur east of the river Sutlej. An adult male may reach 100 cm at the shoulder. The horns are curved like a scimitar.

Wild goat—*Capra hircus* Linnaeus, 1758. The wild goat is found in Baluchistan and Sind according to Ellerman and Morrisson Scott (*op. cit.*). A fullgrown male stands 95 cm at the withers. The horns are curved like a scimitar and have an anterior keel. In Sind the wild goat lives in small or large herds.

The last-mentioned species is considered to be the ancestor of all domestic goats. It is thought to have been first domesticated in West Asia around 10,000 B. C. (Reed 1969). Remains of sheep and goat are found in the ancient settlements of the Quetta Valley and the Loralai-Zhob region

(Fairservis 1956, 1959). It is generally accepted that these bones belonged to domesticated animals, although the wild species still live in this region as well. In the settlements of the Indus Valley culture, bones of sheep and goat were collected in small numbers. Conrad (1966) pointed out that the older bone identifications are not reliable enough to say that both sheep and goats were found. The animals that are depicted in various ways do not leave room for any doubt that the people of the Indus Valley culture kept both sheep and goat. I have not been able to ascertain how far south and east wild goat populations were found in Ancient India. The domestic goat is said to have been imported from West Asia, but it could just as well have been locally domesticated in the Western regions. If the domestic goat was imported initially, in later times it could have been cross-bred with animals from the local wild population.

Five horn cores of goat were found at Navdatoli and Nevasa. They are small and straight, with an oval cross section at the base (fig. 42a, b). One horn core at Nevasa seemed slightly twisted.

In 1961 there were approximately 60,000,000 goats in India of which 5 million were found in Maharashtra (Harbans Singh 1966).

#### Sheep—*Ovis* Linnaeus

Five species of sheep are recognized in Eurasia by Ellerman and Morrisson Scott :

*Ovis orientalis* Gmelin, 1774; *Ovis ammon* Linnaeus, 1758; *Ovis laristanica* Nasanov, 1909; *Ovis musimon* Pallas, 1811; *Ovis canadensis* Shaw, 1804.

Of those species two are found in India.

*Ovis ammon* — the great Tibetan sheep or Marco Polo sheep, which is the largest known, and stands 110-120 cm at the shoulder. It may be found in Ladakh and Spiti. Its major range is, however, the Tibetan plateau. Prater (*op. cit.* 1971) describes the great Tibetan sheep as a different species, the Marco Polo sheep. Ellerman and Morrisson Scott (*op. cit.*) consider both to be one species.

*Ovis orientalis* — the Asiatic moufflon. According to Ellerman and Morrisson Scott this species is still found in Kashmir, Punjab and Baluchistan, but not in Sind. The animals in Ladakh reach a height at the withers of 90 cm, those of Punjab 80 cm.

*Ovis aries* L. — domestic sheep. Sheep are, together with the goat, the oldest known domesticated animals. *Ovis laristanica*, found in West Asia, and *Ovis orientalis* may both have been domesticated. Whether the domestic sheep were first imported, or were originally domesticated in the Punjab, is a question that cannot be answered at present. Possibly, both happened. As



stated earlier, sheep and goat were not identified in the Indus Valley culture. Their existence is, however, attested by clay figurines and depictions on pottery. Two horn cores of sheep were found in Navdatoli; they belong to one individual (fig. 41c). The horn cores are short and sturdy.

Sheep/goat—Most bones could not be identified as to species. Among the bones here described as sheep and goat there may be a few from the blackbuck. No skull bones were found. In all settlements, bones of sheep and goat were collected. It appears that in the south, where all the animal remains were found, fewer small ruminants were slaughtered than in the north. The scarcity of long bones in Kayatha seems due to a bias of the collector. The bones most frequently collected are the mandibulae. All those belonged to sheep or goat, a number were of young animals. The long bones were less frequently collected.

*Scapulae*—were found at Nevasa and Inamgaon.

*Humerus*—12 pieces were picked up at Inamgaon, two at Kodekal and two at Nevasa.

*Radius and ulna*—were collected only at Inamgaon.

*Pelvis*—there were only a few unmeasurable pelvis bones.

*Femur*—only a few fragments were collected at Kodekal, Navdatoli and Inamgaon.

*Tibia*—were primarily collected at Inamgaon.

*Metacarpus*—The metacarpus of the *Bovidae* can, in most cases, easily be distinguished from the *Cervidae*. To what extent they are distinguishable from those of the blackbuck is unknown to me. Those of gazelle will be smaller and more slender. A small metacarpus found at Kodekal may be of a gazelle.

*Metatarsus*—In Inamgaon a number of metatarsi were found of which the vascular groove was more pronounced than in the others (fig. 41d, e). There were no differences in the measurements. They could be of the blackbuck; they were, however, most likely those of sheep and goat.

*Astragalus*—The astragali of sheep/goat and blackbuck may prove to be difficult to separate. One astragalus collected at Navdatoli was much smaller measuring 26.5 cm. The other lengths lay between 30—32.5 Cms.

*Phalanx I*.—It seems that the phalanges of Inamgaon separate into three groups. Whether this is due to the small number or to the fact they are really of different species is not known with certainty. It seems, however, that they fall within the range from Nevasa. In summary, it is possible to be certain that both sheep and goat were present in prehistoric India east of the realm of the Indus Valley culture. It is impossible to say anything about

the ratio in which they were slaughtered, or the numbers in which they were kept.

The maxillae and mandibulae collected give us an insight into the slaughtering age (table 14). In Kayatha, two mandibulae were collected of animals younger than two years. In Inamgaon III, one mandibula was collected of an approximately one year-old animal, six were of animals older than two years. Of the mandibulae, 13 were of animals younger than two years. Apparently, one out of four animals was slaughtered after reaching maturity. In Nevasa, the majority of the animals were also slaughtered after reaching maturity. This seems to indicate that the animals were milked (sheep and goat) and the wool (sheep) collected. Since the bones were selectively collected this can be only a guess.

### Order Lagomorpha

#### Fam Leporidae

*Lepus nigricollis* Cuvier, 1823—Indian hare or blacknaped hare.

According to Prater (1971), two subspecies of the Indian hare *Lepus nigricollis nigricollis* and *Lepus nigricollis ruficaudatus* are found in India. Ellerman and Morrisson Scott describe them as one species *Lepus nigricollis*.

Hares are still numerous in India, in cultivated areas with enough scrubs for hiding. It seems that the hare is a culture follower. In two places, the remains of hares were collected. In Kodekal a premaxilla, in Nevasa a r. mandibula, r. humerus, and r. femur. The mandibula was discovered in the weathered zone, the humerus and femur in period V.

In Europe the hare became more abundant during the Bronze and Iron Ages when man destroyed more and more of the forests. Until more evidence is available it is difficult to say whether something similar happened in some parts of India.

### Order Rodentia

#### Fam. Hystricidae

*Hystrix indica* Kerr, 1972—Indian porcupine. The Indian porcupine is a large mammal that can reach a length of 70-90 cms (without tail). It is a large rodent found all over India from Cape Comorin and Ceylon to the Himalayas. The animal favours rocky hill sides, but can adapt itself to any type of country. In the daytime, it takes shelter in caves, or in burrows dug by itself. The burrows have a gallery and a chamber that are up to 150 cm below ground level. We should remember those burrowing habits of the



porcupine when we find the remains of porcupines in prehistoric settlements. In Nevasa two fragments of a mandibula were found (fig. 12).

Fam. Murinae

Genus *Rattus* Fisher, 1803

*Rattus rattus* Linnaeus, 1758. Wild rats originally occurred in Asia, parts of India, Ceylon, the Himalayan foot-hills, etc. The rat was spread over large parts of the world by human beings. In India the wild species is white, the communal dark. A species with a world-wide distribution as the rat has many races, but it is difficult to divide the species in well-defined races.

A number of the rodent bones collected may be of rats. Rats have burrowing habits. It seems that in the plains they favoured the dwelling mounds of human beings for digging holes and obtaining food. In Kodekal four long bones were found. A humerus 758 2(4) is probably of a rat, the proximal epiphysis was not yet fused with the shaft. Three femurs were collected. Nr. 755 2(4) is only a diaphysis; the epiphyses had not yet fused and were lost. The bone is larger than that of a recent rat in the Poona collection. The proximal part of a second femur was found. This specimen is smaller than that of the recent rat. The third femur was only a fragment. At Nevasa, a large number of rodent remains were collected from the levels III, V and VI. They represent more than one species. A number of bones may be of *Rattus* sp., although the measurements are slightly larger than those given by Ellerman (1961). A skull fragment and five mandibulae also belong to this group.

*Bandicota indica* Bechstein/Dacnomys? 1800. Three mandibulae in Nevasa belong to a second group of animals which are much larger than the rat. They may belong to the bandicoot rat, which species is found in Ceylon and in Peninsular India, north upto Kathiawar. Like the rat, the bandicoot rat is found where human beings live.

cf. *Rhizomys sumatrensis* Raffles, 1821—large Bamboo rat. A skull found in Nevasa, is much larger than that of a rat. When compared with the skulls depicted by Ellerman (1961), it had the same dimensions as those of *Rhizomys sumatrensis*, at present not found further west than Burma.

Unidentified rodent

Five bones from small rodents found in Nevasa could not be identified as to species.

## AVES—birds

Bird bones are, in general, lightly built, small, and easily damaged. Owing to this, only a few bird bones could be collected. This is regrettable, since bird remains especially can tell us much about the environment of a settlement.

India may be the country where fowl and peacock were first domesticated. Of both domestic birds the wild parent species *Gallus gallus* L. and *Pavo cristatus* L. still live in India.

*Gallus gallus* Linnaeus—red jungle fowl. The wild red fowl is found in northern India, in the Himalayan foot-hills as far as eastern Assam, and south to the Godavari river in eastern Madhya Pradesh. The red jungle fowl lives at the edge of the forest and comes out in the early morning and the afternoon to feed in the fields.

Clay statues of the domestic and probably of the wild fowl were found in Harappa, and there was also a fowl depicted on a sherd. According to Conrad (1968) the clay figures portray domestic animals, the one on the sherd a wild animal. Remains of the domestic fowl were found in Nevasa VI, which belonged to a large animal. (fig. 43).

*Pavo cristatus* Linnaeus—common peafowl. The wild peacock is still found in many parts of India today. The bird lives in dense scrub, and deciduous jungle, preferably in the neighbourhood of rivers and streams (Salim Ali 1968). The peacock motif was already used on a large scale by the Indus Valley culture. In Navdatoli also, the peacock was the bird most frequently depicted on the pottery. Here we find a large variety of displaying and non displaying peacocks (fig. 8D).

According to Conrad, one of the femora found at Harappa and described as domestic fowl, belongs to a peacock. Basham (1966) mentioned that the peacock was originally a food animal. It was the favourite dish of the Emperor Asoka, before he became a vegetarian. In the Middle Ages there were villages of peacock rearers, who supplied the birds to the king and other important people.

Aves sp.—Bones of other species were found at Kodekal and Nevasa, but could not be identified. An ulna of a small bird and a claw of a large bird were found in Nevasa V and Nevasa W. What seems to be a fragment of a skull was found in Nevasa IV. Another ulna was found in Nevasa ? and a tibiotarsus in Nevasa V. In Kodekal a metacarpus of a bird, the size of a fowl or duck was found.



## REPTILIA—reptiles

Only few remains of reptiles were collected. The most conspicuous are those of the tortoises. It seems that the large crocodiles were not hunted although even at present they still live in a number of rivers and along seashores.

## Tortoise

In several settlements the carapaces of tortoises were found. At least three species are present. Both Nath and Shah mention three species of which the remains were found in prehistoric settlements.

## PISCES—Fish

Only a few fish bones were collected. Fish bones are mostly small and brittle, and they can be easily overlooked, although the bones of the large carp and catfishes must have been rather conspicuous. In Kodekal, where all the bones were collected, 4 fish bones were found. In Nevasa V the rays of the dorsal fins of three small ciprinides were found, in Nevasa '59/61 the jaw of a large fish. In Navdatoli a finray and some vertebrae that could not be identified.

At present, several carp and catfish species are among the most frequently caught fresh-water fish in the Indian rivers and tanks. Chandy (1970) reports that at present catfishes and carp constitute about 64 per cent of the fresh-water fish of India and are very important as a food. Also in ancient India, where the earliest settlements are found along the rivers, fish was, in all probability, an important constituent of the diet. According to Ansari (pers. comm.), *Robur* or *Tambda masa* (carp), *Labeo rohita* and *Singala* (catfish), *Mystus seenghala*, as well as a few other species were among the species caught in the river during the excavation campaign of Inamgaon.

## MOLLUSCA—Molluscs

Although few molluscs were collected, in prehistoric Inamgaon, in particular, a river mussel (unidentified) must have been an important part of the daily diet.

## Conclusion

From the earliest times, the inhabitants of the prehistoric and early historic settlements of the Shorapur Doab, Navdatoli, Nevasa, Inamgaon and Kayatha, kept the five domestic animals known at that time : cattle, sheep, goat, pig and dog. In later periods, the horse, the donkey, and poultry were added. The remains of cattle were the most frequently collected by the excavators. Those of pigs were collected only in small numbers, except in Navdatoli. The small ruminants (sheep and goat) take second place, except for the microlithic settlement of Bagor (Misra 1971) in Rajasthan, where Thomas (1975) found that in the oldest layers sheep and goat dominated, as they did in the settlements in Baluchistan and the Loralai-Sind region. Animal proteins were not only obtained from domestic animals but also from wild ones. The sambar, chital, chinkara, blackbuck and nilgai were hunted, as well as smaller and larger carnivores.

It is not yet possible to obtain a clear picture of the stockbreeding and hunting practices of the settlements investigated, but there is little doubt that in the farming communities stockbreeding was practised alongside plant cultivation.



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Site	State	Phase	Culture/Period	Date
Kayatha	Rajasthan	III	Jorwe	1500-1300 B.C.
		II	Malwe	1700-1500 B.C.
		I	Harappa	2000-1800 B.C.
Navdatoli	Madhya Pradesh	I-4	Chalcolithic	1600-1400 B.C.
Nevasa (1955-'56)	Maharashtra	VI	Muslim-Maratha	1400-1700 A.D.
		V	Indo-Roman	100-300 A.D.
		IV	Early Historic	300 B.C. - 100 A.D.
		III	Chalcolithic	1300-1000 B.C.
Nevasa (1959-'61)			Jorwe	1300-1000 B.C.
Inamgaon	Maharashtra	III	Late Jorwe	1100-800 B.C.
		II	Early Jorwe	1300-1100 B.C.
		I	Malwe	1600-1300 B.C.

Table 1. The approximate duration of the habitation phases of Kayatha, Navdatoli, Nevasa and Inamgaon.

	KODEKAL, trench 1	Bos sp.	Capra/Ovis	trench 2xx	Lepus sp.	Rodentia indet.	Rattus sp.	Canis familiaris	Sus sp.	Deer	Bos sp. x	Capra/Ovis	Avia indet.	Fiscis indet.	surface find xxx	Bos sp.	HALTUM	Bos sp.	KANNEKOLUR	Cervus duvaucelli/	Axib axis	Bos/Cervus	Bos sp.	RUDEKAL	Bos sp.	TIRTH	Bos sp.	KUPI
Skull																												
Maxilla + praemaxilla											3 (0)																	
Teeth maxilla											5 (0)																	
Mandibula											7 (0)																	
Teeth mandibula											4 (0)																	
Atlas											10																	
Epistropheus											0 (1)																	
Vertebrae											6 (0)																	
Ribs											4 (0)																	
Scapula											6 (0)																	
Humerus											4 (0)																	
Radius											4 (0)																	
Ulna								1 (0)																				
Metacarpus											5																	
Pelvis											4 (0)																	
Femur											4 (0)																	
Patella											4 (0)																	
Tibia											1 (0)																	
Centrotarsale											1																	
Calcaneum											1																	
Astragalus											1																	
Metatarsus											1																	
O. carpi/tarsi											1																	
Metacarpus/-tarsus											1																	
Phalanx I											3 (0)																	
Phalanx II											1																	
Phalanx III											1																	

Table 2. A survey of the distribution of the bones collected from the ash-mounds.

( ) Identification is not certain.

x Long bones of young animals probably belonging to Bos (nr. 351.2 + 797.2 not included).

xx One unidentified vertebrae, three unidentified rib fragments, seven unidentified fragments. Two vertebrae of a small animal, probably not a mammal.

xxx Twelve unidentified fragments.







	<u>Histrix indica</u>	<u>Rattus</u> sp.	<u>Rodent</u> b <sup>x</sup>	<u>Canis/Cuon</u>	<u>Large carnivore</u>	<u>Small carnivore</u>	<u>Equus caballus</u>	<u>Sus</u> sp.	<u>Cervus cf. unicolor</u>	<u>Deer</u> xx	<u>Tetracerus quadricornis</u>	<u>Hoselaphus</u>	<u>Tragocamelus</u>	<u>Bos</u> sp.	<u>Bubalus bubalis</u>	<u>Antelope cervicapra</u>	<u>Capra hircus</u>	<u>Capra/Ovis</u>	<u>Canis familiaris</u>	<u>Pisces</u> indet.
Horn/core/antler																				
Maxilla																				
Teeth maxilla																				
Mandibula																				
Teeth mandibula																				
Epistropheus																				
Vertebrae																				
Ribs																				
Scapula																				
Humerus																				
Radius																				
Ulna																				
Metacarpus																				
Pelvis																				
Femur																				
Tibia																				
Calcaneum																				
Astragalus																				
Metatarsus																				
O. carpi/tarsi																				
Metacarpus/-tarsus																				
Phalanx I																				
Phalanx II																				
Phalanx III																				

Table 5. A survey of the distribution of the bones collected at Nevasa during the campaign of 1959-1961.

() Identification is not certain.

x Handicota indica/dakshaya.

xx Are possibly not all of the same species.

3 Worked bones, 1 bone disc nom. diam. 31.5 mm, 1 bone point, 1 antler die, 1 piece of ivory (waste piece).



	Rodent A	cf Rattus	Canis familiaris	Vulpes sp.	Small carnivore	Equus caballus	Sus sp.	Cervus sp.	Cervus cf unicolor	Boselaphus tragocamelus	Bos sp.	Antelope cervicapra	Capra/Ovis	Gallus gallus	Bos/Bubalis
Horn/core/antler															
Skull	1										1 30	2			
Maxilla							1				17				
Teeth maxilla											33				
Mandibula				1							21		4		
Teeth mandibula											41		11		
Atlas											10		2		
Epistropheus											0.2		1		
Vertebrae											0.2				
Ribs											10		1		
Scapula											10				
Humerus											10				
Radius											10				
Ulna											10				
Metacarpus											10				
Pelvis											10				
Femur											10				
Tibia											10				
Tibio-tarsus											10				
Calcaneum											10				
Astragalus											10				
Metatarsus											10				
Phalanx I											10				
Phalanx II											10				

Table 6. A survey of the distribution of the bones of Nevasa, phase III (1955-1956).

() Identification is not certain.

	<u>cf. Rattus</u>	<u>Canis familiaris</u>	<u>Felis sp.</u>	<u>Equus caballus</u>	<u>Sus sp.</u>	<u>Cervus cf. unicolor</u>	<u>Bos sp.</u>	<u>Antelope cervicapra</u>	<u>Capra/Ovis</u>
Horn/core/antler	.	.	.	.	.	2	2	2	.
Maxilla	.	.	.	.	.	.	6	.	6
Teeth maxilla	.	.	.	.	.	.	9	.	3
Mandibula	.	1	1	1	1	.	9	.	6
Teeth mandibula	.	.	.	.	.	.	13 <sup>x</sup>	.	.
Atlas	.	.	.	.	.	.	2 <sup>x</sup>	.	1
Epistropheus	.	.	.	.	.	.	1	.	(1)
Vertebrae	.	.	.	.	.	.	(2)	.	.
Ribs	.	.	.	.	.	.	3	.	.
Scapula	.	.	.	.	.	.	2	.	.
Humerus	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	(1)	.
Radius	.	.	.	.	.	.	1	(1)	.
Metacarpus	.	.	.	.	.	.	10 <sup>x</sup>	.	.
Pelvis	.	.	.	.	.	.	1	.	.
Femur	.	.	.	.	.	.	3	.	2
Astragalus	.	.	.	.	.	.	3	.	1
Metatarsus	.	.	.	.	.	.	3	.	.
Phalanx I	.	.	.	.	.	.	1	.	.
Phalanx II	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Phalanx III	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	3

Table 7. A survey of the distribution of the bones of Nevada, layer W (1955-1956).

(1) Identification is not certain.

<sup>x</sup> Large piece, probably Bubalus.

	<u>Elephas maximus</u>	<u>Sus sp.</u>	<u>Cervus cf. unicolor</u>	<u>Bos sp.</u>	<u>Antelope cervicapra</u>	<u>Capra/Ovis</u>	<u>Callus gallus</u>	<u>Aves indet.</u>	<u>Reptilia indet.</u>	<u>Pisces indet.</u>	<u>Ruminant</u>
Horncore/antler	.	.	2	.	2	.	.	.	.	.	.
Skull	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	1	.	.	.
Maxilla	1	1	.	4	.	3	.	.	.	.	.
Teeth maxilla	.	.	.	15	.	1	.	.	.	.	xx
Mandibula	.	.	.	8	.	11	.	.	.	.	2
Teeth mandibula	.	1 (0)	.	19	.	9	.	.	.	.	1
Atlas	.	.	.	2	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Vertebrae	.	.	.	4	.	1	.	.	.	.	.
Ribs	.	.	.	0)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Humerus	.	.	.	2	.	1	1	.	.	.	.
Radius	.	.	.	1	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Metacarpus	.	.	.	1 <sup>x</sup>	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Pelvis	.	.	.	1	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Femur	.	.	.	2	.	.	.	.	1 fragment tortoise	1 fragment	.
Calcaneum	.	.	.	2	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Metatarsus	.	.	.	1	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
O. carpi/tarsi	.	.	.	1	.	1	.	.	.	.	.
Phalanx I	.	.	.	1	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Phalanx II	.	.	.	1	.	.	1	.	.	.	.
Phalanx III	.	.	.	0)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.

Table 8. A survey of the distribution of the bones of Nevada, phase IV (1955-1956)

( ) Identification is not certain.

<sup>x</sup> Large piece probably Bubalus.

<sup>xx</sup> Ruminant with the size of small Bos taurus.



	Lepus sp.	Small rodent A	cf. Rattus	Small rodent	Canis familiaris	Felis sp.	Equus sp.	cf. Rhinoceros	Sus sp.	Cervus sp.	Cervus cf. unicolor	Bos sp.	Antelope cervicapra	Capra hircus	Capra/Ovis	Aves indet.	Reptilia indet.	Fishes indet.
Horncore/antler																		
Skull																		
Maxilla																		
Teeth maxilla																		
Mandibula																		
Teeth mandibula		3													21			
Atlas																		
Vertebrae																		
Ribs																		
Scapula			1+															
Humerus																		
Radius																		
Ulna																		
Metacarpus																		
Pelvis																		
Femur																		
Tibia																		
Tibio-tarsus																		
Centrotarsale																		
Calcaneum																		
Astragalus																		
Metatarsus																		
Phalanx I																		
Phalanx II																		

Table 9. A survey of the distribution of the bones of Nevada, phase V (1955-1956).

() Identification is not certain.

x Rodent larger than a rat.

xx Probably 1 individual.

	Small rodent <sup>*</sup>	cf <u>Sattus</u>	<u>Sus</u> sp.	<u>Cervus cf unicolor</u>	<u>Bos</u> sp.	<u>Antelope cervicapra</u>	<u>Capra/Ovis</u>	<u>Gallus gallus</u>
Horn/core/antler	.	.	.	1	.	2	.	.
Skull	.	.	.	.	2	.	2	.
Teeth maxilla	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Mandibula	1	.	2	.	.	.	2	.
Teeth mandibula	.	.	.	.	0	.	1	.
Ribs	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Humerus	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	1
Radius	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	1
Ulna	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	1
Tibio-tarsus	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	1
Tarso-metatarsus	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	1
Phalanx I	.	.	.	.	1	.	.	.

Table 10. A survey of the distribution of the bones of Nevasa, phase VI (1955-1956).

(.) Identification is not certain.

\* Dacomys/Bandicota.





	<u>Canis familiaris</u>	<u>Equus caballus</u>	<u>Rhinoceros</u> *	<u>Homo sp.</u>	<u>Axis axis</u>	<u>Cervus unicolor</u>	<u>Tetracerus quadricornis</u>	<u>Elaphus</u>	<u>Tragocamelus</u>	<u>Homo sp.</u>	<u>Antelope cervicapra</u>	<u>Capra/Ovis</u>	
Horncore/antler	.	.	.	.	1 (6)	.	2	.	80	27	.	.	
Skull	2	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	4 (2)	5	.	2	
Maxilla	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	780	.	.	1	
Teeth maxilla	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	280	.	2	10	
Mandibula	2	.	.	.	0	.	.	.	50	.	.	2	
Teeth mandibula	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	1	.	.	.	
Atlas	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	9	.	.	2	
Epistropheus	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	54	.	.	4	
Vertebrae	.	.	.	0	0	.	.	.	33	.	.	.	
Ribs	.	.	0	.	.	.	.	.	150	.	.	7	
Scapula	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	19	.	.	16	
Humerus	2	.	.	.	.	1	.	.	14	.	.	3	
Radius	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	20	.	.	1	
Ulna	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	39	.	.	10	
Metacarpus	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	120	.	.	.	
Pelvis	.	.	.	2	.	.	.	.	90	.	50	.	
Femur	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	2	.	.	.	
Patella	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	17	.	100	.	
Tibia	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	5	.	.	.	
Centrotarsale	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	29	.	.	16	
Calcaneum	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	46	.	.	4	
Astragalus	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	28	.	21	.	
Metatarsus	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	4	60	.	.	
O. carpi/tarsi	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	18	.	.	7	
Metacarpus/-tarsus	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	62	.	11	.	
Phalanx I	.	.	1	.	.	6	.	6	32	.	.	.	
Phalanx II	.	.	1	.	.	.	.	.	30	.	.	.	
Phalanx III	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	

Reptilis indet.  
 7 fragments of a tortoise  
 Mollusca indet.  
 Bivalves, 2 species; snail, 1 species

Table 12. A survey of the distribution of the bones collected from Inamgaon.

( ) Identification is not certain.  
 Some bones of Homo sapiens.

\* Fragment of heavy long bone from Rhinoceros or Elaphus.



## Leporidae

Leporidae  
Indian Hare - *Lepus cf. nigricollis* Cuvier

**Myricidae**

Indian Porcupine - *Hystrix indica* Kerr

## Murdar

Rat = cf. *Rattus* sp.

Rodent index.

AVES.

## Culture

domestic Fowl - *Gallus gallus domesticus* L.

Wild Fowl - Gallus gallus L.

2

## REPTILIA

870514

Polygon

## POLYLUSCA

Code	Material	Quantity	Unit	Price	Total	Remarks
1	Malur	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
2	Kannokul	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
3	Budikal	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
4	Ticth	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
5	Kupi	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
6	Kayath I	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
7	Kayath II	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
8	Kayath II/III	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
9	Kayath III	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
10	Nadacoli	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
11	Nevaa III ('55, '56)	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
12	Nevaa ('55, '61)	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
13	Inagson	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
14	Kayath IV	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
15	Nevaa V	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
16	Nevaa IV	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
17	Nevaa V	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
18	Nevaa VI	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
19	Kayath I	1	kg	1.00	1.00	
20	Nevaa I	1	kg	1.00	1.00	

Table 13. The species identified and the number of bones.

(c) Identification is not certain.



	♀	♂	mean
Banteng - <u>Bos banteng</u>	.	.	170
Gaur - <u>Bos gaurus</u>	170	195	182
Wild Buffalo - <u>Bubalus bubalis</u>	.	170	.
Nilgai - <u>Boselaphus tragocamelus</u>	.	130-140	135
Fourhorned Antelope - <u>Tetracerus quadricornis</u>	.	65	.
Chinkara - <u>Gazelle gazelle</u>	.	65	.
Blackbuck - <u>Antelope cervicapra</u>	.	.	80
Sambar - <u>Cervus unicolor</u>	.	150	140
Swamp Deer - <u>Cervus duvauceli</u>	.	135	.
Hog Deer - <u>Axis porcinus</u>	.	.	61
Muntjak - <u>Muntiacus muntjak</u>	.	50-75	.

Table 14. The height at the withers of the Bovidae mentioned in this paper (after Prater, 1971) in cm.

Table 15.

[illegible]

Top is missing.  
Base is missing.

1. Maximum width anterior articular process
2. Maximum height anterior articular process
3. Maximum width dens

1.	80.0	39.0	41.0
3.	42.5	39.0	41.0

Maxilla adult.

— ५५५ —





[illegible]

INM III	INM III
MO 6)	D2 6)
60.0	63.5
30.0	34.5
	11.5

Mandibula<sup>1</sup>

1. Depth of the horizontal ramus behind the mandibular symphysis

2. Depth of the horizontal ramus behind  $P_{46}$

3. Depth of the horizontal
- 
4. Length of the tooth row

5. Length of the molar row

6. Length of the premolar row  
7. Length M

7. Length M,
- 
8. Width M,

9. Length 11.6

0. Width
- $M_2$

1. Length M.  
2. Width M.

- Continued

Mandibula									
1.	Depth of the horizontal ramus behind the mandibular symphysis								
2.	Depth of the horizontal ramus behind P <sub>4</sub>								
3.	Depth of the horizontal ramus behind M <sub>3</sub>								
4.	Length of the tooth row								
5.	Length of the molar row								
6.	Length of the premolar row								
7.	Length M <sub>1</sub>	21.0	21.7						
8.	Width M <sub>1</sub>	13.0	12.5						
9.	Length M <sub>2</sub>	25.0		25.0					
10.	Width M <sub>2</sub>	13.0		13.5					
11.	Length M <sub>3</sub>			34.5	35.5	36.5	39.0		
12.	Width M <sub>3</sub>			14.0	13.0	12.5	14.5		







	NVS W	NVS M	NVS IV	NVS IV	Mandibula adult	
					1	NVS IV
2.	3253	4268	6642	5844	4696	35.0
4.						132.0
5.						60.0
6.						51.0
7.						21.0
8.						20.5
9.		27.5		13.0		12.5
10.		04.5		27.5		26.5
11.		05.5		17.0		12.0
12.						33.0
						02.0
						11.5

	KK 260	NVT	NVT	NVT	NVT	NVT	NVT	NVS III	NVS III	NVS III	NVS III	NVS III	1894 II-III
M <sub>3</sub>	307	3095	481	1427	11237	?	2593	11891	4232	6530	3627	8244	18 07
l. Length	39.0	40.0	32.0	32.0	34.0	34.0	35.5	37.5	33.5	34.0	36.0	37.5	41.0
w. Width	13.0	16.0	12.5	13.5	14.5	13.0	13.0	15.5	15.5	13.0	14.0	16.5	16.0

INM III	INM III	INM III	INM III	INM III	INM III	NVS W	NVS W	NVS W	NVS IV	NVS IV	NVS IV	INN	INN
34.5	36.0	37.0	36.5	37.5	39.0	36.0	37.0	39.0	36.5	37.5	39.0	38.5	30.5
14.5	14.0	13.5	13.0	12.5	13.0	12.5	14.0	13.5	15.5	13.5	16.0	14.0	23.0
11.0	10.5	10.0	9.5	10.0	10.5	10.0	10.5	11.0	10.5	11.0	11.5	11.0	10.5
10.5	10.0	9.5	9.0	9.5	10.0	9.5	10.0	10.5	10.0	10.5	11.0	10.5	10.0
10.0	9.5	9.0	8.5	9.0	9.5	9.0	9.5	10.0	9.5	10.0	10.5	10.0	9.5
9.5	9.0	8.5	8.0	8.5	9.0	8.5	9.0	9.5	9.0	9.5	10.0	9.5	9.0
9.0	8.5	8.0	7.5	8.0	8.5	8.0	8.5	9.0	8.5	9.0	9.5	9.0	8.5
8.5	8.0	7.5	7.0	7.5	8.0	7.5	8.0	8.5	8.0	8.5	9.0	8.5	8.0
8.0	7.5	7.0	6.5	7.0	7.5	7.0	7.5	8.0	7.5	8.0	8.5	8.0	7.5
7.5	7.0	6.5	6.0	6.5	7.0	6.5	7.0	7.5	7.0	7.5	8.0	7.5	7.0
7.0	6.5	6.0	5.5	6.0	6.5	6.0	6.5	7.0	6.5	7.0	7.5	7.0	6.5
6.5	6.0	5.5	5.0	5.5	6.0	5.5	6.0	6.5	6.0	6.5	7.0	6.5	6.0
6.0	5.5	5.0	4.5	5.0	5.5	5.0	5.5	6.0	5.5	6.0	6.5	6.0	5.5
5.5	5.0	4.5	4.0	4.5	5.0	4.5	5.0	5.5	5.0	5.5	6.0	5.5	5.0
5.0	4.5	4.0	3.5	4.0	4.5	4.0	4.5	5.0	4.5	5.0	5.5	5.0	4.5
4.5	4.0	3.5	3.0	3.5	4.0	3.5	4.0	4.5	4.0	4.5	5.0	4.5	4.0
4.0	3.5	3.0	2.5	3.0	3.5	3.0	3.5	4.0	3.5	4.0	4.5	4.0	3.5
3.5	3.0	2.5	2.0	2.5	3.0	2.5	3.0	3.5	3.0	3.5	4.0	3.5	3.0
3.0	2.5	2.0	1.5	2.0	2.5	2.0	2.5	3.0	2.5	3.0	3.5	3.0	2.5
2.5	2.0	1.5	1.0	1.5	2.0	1.5	2.0	2.5	2.0	2.5	3.0	2.5	2.0
2.0	1.5	1.0	0.5	1.0	1.5	1.0	1.5	2.0	1.5	2.0	2.5	2.0	1.5
1.5	1.0	0.5	0.0	0.5	1.0	0.5	1.0	1.5	1.0	1.5	2.0	1.5	1.0
1.0	0.5	0.0	-0.5	0.0	0.5	-0.5	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.5	1.0	0.5	0.0
0.5	0.0	-0.5	-1.0	-0.5	0.0	-1.0	-0.5	0.0	-0.5	0.0	0.5	0.0	-0.5
0.0	-0.5	-1.0	-1.5	-1.0	-0.5	-1.5	-1.0	-0.5	-1.0	-0.5	0.0	-0.5	-1.0
-0.5	-1.0	-1.5	-2.0	-1.5	-1.0	-2.0	-1.5	-1.0	-1.5	-1.0	-0.5	-1.0	-1.5
-1.0	-1.5	-2.0	-2.5	-2.0	-1.5	-2.5	-2.0	-1.5	-2.0	-1.5	-1.0	-1.5	-2.0
-1.5	-2.0	-2.5	-3.0	-2.5	-2.0	-3.0	-2.5	-2.0	-2.5	-2.0	-1.5	-2.0	-2.5
-2.0	-2.5	-3.0	-3.5	-3.0	-2.5	-3.5	-3.0	-2.5	-3.0	-2.5	-2.0	-3.0	-3.5
-2.5	-3.0												

	Kann	Buc	AT	NVS III	NVS III	NVS III	NVS III	INM I	INM III	NVS W
Scapula	15	11	A 0)	5168	5164	4395	1775	11 0)	18 0)	3865
1. Minimum height of the No. 4	47.0		46.5		45.5	58.0		47.5	65.0	
2. Length articular surface		56.0		61.5		65.5	63.0		62.0	57.0
3. Width articular surface				50.0	48.5		53.5	44.0		45.5
4. Length proc. articularis		69.0				71.5	76.0	63.0	73.5	70.0





	BHL	BHL	EKL	KTH	KTH	KTH	KTH	KTH	NVS	NVS
			2 (6)	II	II-III	III	III	III	III	III
Radius										
1. Maximum proximal width	6	16	302	A (6)	A (6)	A (6)	A (6)	A (6)	1735	1725
2. Width of the proximal articular surface	80.5	86.0	-	72.0	-	76.5	-	-	66.9	94.0
3. Maximum distal width	72.0	82.0	68.0	-	69.5	-	61.0	-	80.5	84.5
4. Width of the distal articular surface	-	-	63.0	-	-	-	56.5	-	-	-
5. Minimum width of the diaphysis (shaft)	-	-	-	46.5	-	38.5	-	43.0	-	-

	KKL	KTH	HVS	INM	INM	INM	INM
Ulna	2 (4)	111	111	1-11	111	111	11M
Width of the articular surface							
Minimum diameter of the olecranon process	59.0	A (1)	4383	CS 0.3	G9 40	A2 0	?
Pelvis	309			69.5	60.0	72.0	68.5
Length of the acetabulum	03.0	51.0					61.0

Length of the caput

Width of the caput

Maximum disk width

KXL	DHL	SLS	MSS	EAN
2.60		111	111	M
		409	6342	1290
153	2	60.0		82.5
6.0	49.0	46.0		61.0
4.5	37.0		82.5	90.0

## Tibia

t. Maximum proximal width

2. Maximum discal width

REL	KZL	KZL	BHL	BHL	KTH	KTH	KTH	KTH	NVS	NVS	NVS	IQM
11	17	22	16	11	11	11	11	11	111	111	111	11
56.0	58.0	58.0	99.0	A 60	A 60	A 60	A 60	A 60	3784	6337	2422	111 0
									83.0	63.0	105.0	53.0
111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	KTH	KTH	KTH	111
111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	111	IV	IV	IV	111
02 0	A1 0	P8 0	B3 0	02 0	01 0	C3 0	G2 0	G2 0	B 0 3	B 0 3	B 0 3	111 0
56.5	56.0	56.5	57.0	57.5	59.0	60.0	67.0	63.5	56.0	56.0	56.0	53.0

2

## Metacarpon

I. Placiano Lerucha

2. Maximum proximal width

I. Maximum proximal thickness

4. Maximum distal width

5. Maximum discal thickness

p. Minimum width of the diaphysis (shaft)

Index 5 100

Input:  $g$ , Index  $\frac{1}{2} \times 1001$

[illegible]





[illegible]



[illegible]



[illegible]

INM	NVS M	NVS M	NVS V	NVS V	NVS V	NVS V
?	3866	2954	1513	1517	1512	
69.0	65.0	70.0	68.5	69.0		
65.0	61.0		64.5	61.5		
40.5	40.0		44.5	43.0	44.0	
35.0	33.5		37.5	35.5		
36.5			37.5	35.5		
27.0			31.0	28.5	32.0	
7.7	51.6		54.0	51.4		
66.6			69.6	86.3	72.6	
58.7	61.5		65.0	62.3		

	KTH II	KTH II	KTH II	KTH II	NVT	NVT	NVS III	NVS III	TSM II	INN III	INN III
Calcaneum	A 60	A 60	A 60	A 60	3487	?	?	?	A1 60	I8 60	B4 60
- Maximum length	114.0	115.0	128.0	.	114.0	020.0	119.0	.	144.0	116.5	129.0
- Maximum width	38.0	42.5	45.5	45.0	45.0	40.0	35.5	47.5	42.0	38.0	42.5
- Maximum height	46.0	47.5	52.0	54.0	49.0	51.0	48.0	57.0	55.5	50.0	54.0







[illegible]



	NVS III	NVS III	NVS III	NVS III	NVS III	NVS III	Canis dingo	Canis lupus poll.	Canis lup. par.d.
Mandibula	6182	5355	7143	4227	256	1272	11	16	5
Length of the teeth row	.	.	.	71.0	.	.	.	.	.
Length of the molar row	.	26.0	.	35.0	.	.	.	.	.
Length of the premolar row	.	.	.	36.0	.	.	.	.	.
Length M <sub>1</sub>	12.2	19.0	08.0	20.5	20.0	22.5	20.72	24.64	21.48
Width M <sub>1</sub>	.	.	20.0	8.0	8.0	10.0	8.32	9.61	8.48
Length M <sub>2</sub>	.	.	9.5	8.0	.	.	8.80	10.28	8.72
Width M <sub>2</sub>	.	.	9.0	.	.	.	6.82	7.63	6.68
Height of the horizontal ramus before P <sub>4</sub>	16.5	20.5	20.5	19.0	.	.	.	.	.
	juv.								

Radius	NVS III
Maximum proximal width	5175
Minimum width of the diaphysis	17.2
	12.0

Humerus	INN II
Maximum distal width	D8 01)
Minimum width of the diaphysis	33.0
	12.5

Astragalus	NVS III
Maximum length	5175
	47.0



<u>Felis sp.</u>	NVS V	NVS III	NVS IV	NVS VI
Mandibula	1543	5036	2609	627
Length of the teeth row with C	27.2	.	.	.
Length of the teeth row without C	17.8	22.5	22.0	22.2
Length of the diasthema	6.0	5.5	4.0	.
Length M <sub>1</sub>	6.2	.	8.1	8.5
Length al. 4	.	14.0	.	.
		13.0		

	NVS IPI
Humerus	r ? 1
Maximum distal width	18.0 18.0
Width of the trochlea	13.0 13.5
Minimum width of the diaphysis	6.2 .
	juv.

	NVS III
Pelvis	?
Minimum length of the acetabulum	13.0

<u>Elephas maximum</u>	NVS IV
Maxilla	5541
Length teeth still preserved	69.0
Maximum width	33.0
Maximum height measured from the rim of the alveolus	60.0

Equus caballus

	NVS		NVS
	W		III
M <sup>3</sup>	4258	M <sup>1/2</sup>	6129
Length	26.5		22.0
Width	22.5		26.5

	NVS
	V
Mandibula	?
Length of the molar row	93.5
Length P <sub>2</sub>	31.5
Width P <sub>2</sub>	13.5
Length P <sub>3</sub>	29.0
Width P <sub>3</sub>	13.0
Width P <sub>4</sub>	13.5

	NVT
	III
Radius	157
Maximum proximal width	80.0
Width of the articular surface	75.0
Minimum width of the epiphysis	36.0

Equus asinus

	NVT
	II
Mandibula	?
Maximum length M <sub>1</sub>	24.5
Maximum width M <sub>1</sub>	13.0
Maximum length M <sub>2</sub>	22.0
Maximum width M <sub>2</sub>	16.5
Maximum length M <sub>3</sub>	22.0
Maximum width M <sub>3</sub>	15.5

[illegible]



Mandibula adult	S.d. NVT	S.d. NVT	S.d. NVT	S.d. NVT	S.d. NVT	S.d. S.acr.
Length of the praemolar row with P <sub>1</sub>	87.50	14.25	?	?	?	5988
Length of the praemolar row without P <sub>1</sub>	.	.	.	.	.	37.0
Length of the molar row	67.0	71.0	.	.	.	25.0
Length M <sub>3</sub>	31.0	33.0	30.5	32.5	33.5	48.0
Width M <sub>3</sub>	15.5	15.5	19.0	15.0	16.0	17.0
Ø C alveolus	.	.	.	.	.	12.5

Humerus	KKR
Maximum distal width	22
Width of the trochlea	43.0
Minimum width of the diaphysis	38.0
	20.5

Pelvis	INN
Length of the acetabulum	III
	D2 Ø
	29.0

Femur	KTH	NVS
Maximum proximal width	III	V
Length of the caput	A Ø	5486
Width of the caput	66.0	58.0
	31.0	.
	23.0	.

	NVS	
	V	
Tibia	5488	
Maximum length	184.0	
Maximum proximal width	51.0	
Maximum distal width	32.0	33.0
Minimum width of the diaphysis	32.0	
	1 ind.	

	INN		III
	III		III
Phalanx I	A2 @	Phalanx II	A2 @
Maximum length	67.0		49.0
Maximum proximal width	63.0		43.0
Maximum distal width	59.0		47.5
Minimum width of the diaphysis	58.5		44.0
Maximum thickness proximal	.		44.0
Maximum distal thickness	.		31.5

cf Axis axis

	NVT
	7424
Circumference rose	050.0

Tetracerus quadricornus

	INN	INN
	II	III
Horn-cores	H9 (1)	18 @
Circumference at the base	40.0	45.0
Maximum diameter	13.5	13.5
Minimum diameter	10.0	12.5

	NVS III	NVS III	Recent
Mandibula	4226	1781	UV87
Height behind the symphysis	.	.	9.0
Height before M <sub>1</sub>	14.5	16.0	16.0
Height behind M <sub>1</sub>	.	24.0	22.0
Height before P <sub>2</sub>	12.0	.	11.5
Length of the teeth row	65.5	63.0	65.0
Length of the molar row	37.0	41.0	38.0
Length of the praemolar row	28.5	.	27.0
Length M <sub>2</sub>	12.5	.	13.0
Length M <sub>2</sub>	16.0	05.0	15.0
Width M <sub>1</sub>	6.5	7.0	7.0
Thickness pars molaris	.	13.0	11.5

<u>Osoelaphus tragocamelus</u>	NVI	NVI	NVI	55/56 NVS III
Horn-cores	148	2887	8904	7688
Circumference at the base	128.0	040.0	052.0	125.0
Width a	38.0	43.0	43.0	37.0
Width b	34.0	40.0	36.0	36.5
Width c	43.0	51.0	55.0	45.0



cf Boselaphus tragocamelus

	NVT	NVT
Mandibula	6412	12849
Height behind the symphysis	.	09.0
Height before M <sub>1</sub>	.	31.5
Height behind M <sub>1</sub>	45.0	44.0
Length of the teeth row	.	021.0
Length of the molar row	.	76.0
Length of the praemolar row	.	45.0
Length M <sub>2</sub>	.	23.5
Width M <sub>2</sub>	.	13.0
Length M <sub>3</sub>	32.0	29.5
Width M <sub>3</sub>	13.0	12.5
Thickness of the horizontal ramus	22.5	21.0

Boselaphus tragocamelus

	INM
	III
Metacarpus	D2 0)
Maximum proximal width	45.0
Maximum proximal thickness	31.0
Index $\frac{2}{1} \times 100$	69.0

	INM	INM
	I	III
Metatarsus	A2 04)	D2 0)
Maximum distal width	38.5	43.0
Maximum distal thickness	28.5	32.0
Index $\frac{2}{1} \times 100$	74.0	73.0



# Gazella gazella

## Mandibula

Height behind the symphysis	NVT	NVT
Height before M <sub>1</sub>	255	3097
Height behind M <sub>3</sub>	.	11.0
Length of the teeth row	15.0	18.0
Length of the molar row	25.0	.
Length of the praemolar row	60.0	.
Length M <sub>3</sub>	40.0	.
Width M <sub>3</sub>	17.0	25.0
	6.0	.

## Capra hircus

### Horn-cores

Circumference at the base	NVT	NVT
Maximum diameter	250	198
Minimum diameter	.	70.0
Maximum length	.	22.5
Minimum length	06.0	17.5
	07.0	78.0
		74.0

## Capra/Ovis

### Maxilla

Length of the teeth row	NVT	NVT
Length of the molar row	7436	2361
Length of the praemolar row	64.0	64.0
Length M <sub>1</sub>	42.0	42.0
Width M <sub>2</sub>	24.0	21.5
Length M <sub>3</sub>	.	.
Width M <sub>3</sub>	05.0	16.0
	9.0	11.0

## Ovis aries

NVS	NVT	NVT
111	1	1
319	3174	3375
71.0	107.0	010.0
.	42.0	41.5
.	26.0	27.0
.	.	.
.	.	.

## NVS

### 111

### 7936

### 47.5

### 02.0

### 12.5

### 17.0

### 17.0





## Mandibula adult

1. Height behind the symphysis
2. Height before  $M_1$
3. Height behind  $M_3$
4. Length of the teeth row
5. Length of the molar row
6. Length of the premolar row
7. Length  $M_3$
8. Width  $M_1$

[illegible]

	NVS	NVS	NVS	NVS	NVS	NVS	NVS	NVS	NVS
	V	V	V	V	V	V	V	V	V
1.	2932	907	1199	1149	893	857	1140	2037	4194
2.	10.5	11.0	13.0	.	11.0	11.5	.	.	.
3.	20.0	17.0	20.5	.	20.0	19.0	.	.	.
4.	.	.	35.5	.	.	72.0	.	.	.
5.	21.0	20.0	19.5	.	22.5	.	.	.	.
6.	.	.	42.5	.	.	23.0	25.0	17.0	21.0
7.	.	.	22.5	21.0	.	8.0	8.0	6.0	7.0
8.	.	.	9.0	8.0	.	.	.	.	juv.

55/56

NVS

III

5402

18.5

25.5

21.0

30.5

NVS

V

1509

20.0

.

.

.

.

Scapula

- Minimum length of the neck
- Length of the articular surface
- Width of the articular surface
- Width over the proc. articularis
- Height of the articular surface to the beginning of the spina scapulae

Index  $\frac{1}{2}$  x 100

?

?

.

23.0

21.0

.

.

.

.

.

IIM

III

D1 Q

.

25.0

23.5

35.5

IIM

III

D2 Q

20.5

23.5

27.5

24.5

35.5

IIM

III

H9 Q

23.5

27.5

24.5

35.5

IIM

III

H9 Q

16.0

68.2

97.5

IIM

I

II Q

21.0

26.0

24.5

35.0

IIM

I

II Q

20.0

26.0

24.5

35.0

IIM

III

H9 Q

19.0

95.0

IIM

I

II Q

20.0

26.0

24.5

35.0

IIM

III

H9 Q

19.0

95.0

IIM

I

II Q

20.0

26.0

24.5

35.0

IIM

III

H9 Q

19.0

95.0

IIM

I

II Q

20.0

26.0

24.5

35.0

IIM

III

H9 Q

19.0

95.0

KXL

2 Q

382

.

.

27.0

14.0

26.0

IIM

I-II

G8 Q.3

.

.

24.0

23.5

cf.

IIM

II

A1 Q.2

.

.

26.0

26.0

.

IIM

III

B1 Q

.

.

28.0

27.5

.

IIM

III

B1 Q

.

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31.5

29.5

.

IIM

III

B1 Q

.

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30.0

27.5

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IIM

III

H8 Q

.

.

32.0

31.0

.

IIM

III

D2 Q

30.5

33.0

28.0

.

.

IIM

III

H8 Q

16.0

68.2

97.5

IIM

III

H8 Q

13 Q

.

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31.0

30.5

.

IIM

III

H8 Q

18 Q

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30.0

27.0

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IIM

III

H8 Q

17 Q

61.5

33.0

.

.

.

IIM

III

H8 Q

28.0

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IIM

III

H8 Q

18 Q

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.

.

Humerus

- Maximum proximal width
- Width of the caput
- Maximum distal width
- Width over the trochlea
- Minimum width of the diaphysis



EXL	NVS	NVS
2 49	111	IV
316	5167	?
2.	32.5	
3.	.	27.9
4.	.	26.0
5.	.	

## Radius + Ulna

Maximum proximal width  
Width of the proximal articular surface  
Minimum width of the diaphysis  
Width of the articular surface  
Processus olecranon

Femur	914.0	124.8
Maximum length	174.0	17.5
Maximum proximal width	34.5	17.5
Minimum width of the shaft		
Maximum distal width		

	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036	2037	2038	2039	2040	2041	2042	2043	2044	2045	2046	2047	2048	2049	2050	2051	2052	2053	2054	2055	2056	2057	2058	2059	2060	2061	2062	2063	2064	2065	2066	2067	2068	2069	2070	2071	2072	2073	2074	2075	2076	2077	2078	2079	2080	2081	2082	2083	2084	2085	2086	2087	2088	2089	2090	2091	2092	2093	2094	2095	2096	2097	2098	2099	2100	2101	2102	2103	2104	2105	2106	2107	2108	2109	2110	2111	2112	2113	2114	2115	2116	2117	2118	2119	2120	2121	2122	2123	2124	2125	2126	2127	2128	2129	2130	2131	2132	2133	2134	2135	2136	2137	2138	2139	2140	2141	2142	2143	2144	2145	2146	2147	2148	2149	2150	2151	2152	2153	2154	2155	2156	2157	2158	2159	2160	2161	2162	2163	2164	2165	2166	2167	2168	2169	2170	2171	2172	2173	2174	2175	2176	2177	2178	2179	2180	2181	2182	2183	2184	2185	2186	2187	2188	2189	2190	2191	2192	2193	2194	2195	2196	2197	2198	2199	2200	2201	2202	2203	2204	2205	2206	2207	2208	2209	2210	2211	2212	2213	2214	2215	2216	2217	2218	2219	2220	2221	2222	2223	2224	2225	2226	2227	2228	2229	2230	2231	2232	2233	2234	2235	2236	2237	2238	2239	2240	2241	2242	2243	2244	2245	2246	2247	2248	2249	2250	2251	2252	2253	2254	2255	2256	2257	2258	2259	2260	2261	2262	2263	2264	2265	2266	2267	2268	2269	2270	2271	2272	2273	2274	2275	2276	2277	2278	2279	2280	2281	2282	2283	2284	2285	2286	2287	2288	2289	2290	2291	2292	2293	2294	2295	2296	2297	2298	2299	2300	2301	2302	2303	2304	2305	2306	2307	2308	2309	2310	2311	2312	2313	2314	2315	2316	2317	2318	2319	2320	2321	2322	2323	2324	2325	2326	2327	2328	2329	2330	2331	2332	2333	2334	2335	2336	2337	2338	2339	2340	2341	2342	2343	2344	2345	2346	2347	2348	2349	2350	2351	2352	2353	2354	2355	2356	2357	2358	2359	2360	2361	2362	2363	2364	2365	2366	2367	2368	2369	2370	2371	2372	2373	2374	2375	2376	2377	2378	2379	2380	2381	2382	2383	2384	2385	2386	2387	2388	2389	2390	2391	2392	2393	2394	2395	2396	2397	2398	2399	2400	2401	2402	2403	2404	2405	2406	2407	2408	2409	2410	2411	2412	2413	2414	2415	2416	2417	2418	2419	2420	2421	2422	2423	2424	2425	2426	2427	2428	2429	2430	2431	2432	2433	2434	2435	2436	2437	2438	2439	2440	2441	2442	2443	2444	2445	2446	2447	2448	2449	2450	2451	2452	2453	2454	2455	2456	2457	2458	2459	2460	2461	2462	2463	2464	2465	2466	2467	2468	2469	2470	2471	2472	2473	2474	2475	2476	2477	2478	2479	2480	2481	2482	2483	2484	2485	2486	2487	2488	2489	2490	2491	2492	2493	2494	2495	2496	2497	2498	2499	2500
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[illegible][illegible]



Phalanx III  
 Maximum length  
 Dorsal length

NVS  
 IV  
 6193  
 31.0  
 43.0

Lepus

NVS  
 W  
 4382  
 16.5

Mandibula

Length of the molar row

NVS  
 V  
 1141  
 84.5  
 14.5  
 11.0  
 5.0

Humerus

Maximum length  
 Minimum proximal width  
 Maximum distal width  
 Minimum width of the diaphysis

NVS  
 4198  
 100.0  
 16.5  
 8.0

Femur

Length; measured of the caput

Cervus/Boselaphus

NVS  
 1  
 A1 0.4  
 69.5  
 21.0  
 20.5  
 18.5

Phalanx I

Maximum length  
 Maximum proximal width  
 Maximum distal width  
 Minimum width of the diaphysis

NVS  
 18M  
 111  
 D2 Q  
 62.0  
 18.5  
 18.0  
 16.0

NVS  
 18M  
 111  
 D4 Q  
 62.5  
 21.5  
 19.5  
 16.5

NVS  
 18M  
 111  
 D6 Q  
 62.5  
 20.0  
 19.5  
 16.5

NVS  
 18M  
 111  
 D8 Q  
 62.5  
 20.0  
 19.5  
 16.5

Table 15. Measurements in mm. The measurements are mainly taken after Duerst.

( ) The measurement is not accurate.

cf Cervus unicolor

	NVS	INM
	III	
Radius	1718	D2 ⑤
Maximum distal width	52.0	54.0
Length pur.vl.	49.5	46.0

	NVS	
	III	
Mandibula adult	4796	
Height behind the symphysis	20.5	
Length of the premolar row	50.0	

cf Axis axis

	INM	
	III	
Mandibula juv.	D1 ②	
Length milk molar row	26.5	
Length p <sub>3</sub>	16.0	
Width p <sub>3</sub>	6.5	

Small deer

	Kann	INM
Humerus	22	11 ③
Maximum distal width	.	43.5
Width of the trochlea	35.0	37.0
Minimum width of the diaphysis	20.5	.
Minimum width of the epiphysis	.	18.0

	NVS
	V
Astragalus	591
Maximum lateral length	40.5
Maximum medial length	38.0
Width trochlea	26.0

<u>Gallus gallus</u>	NVS
	IV
Humerus	2552
1 2	20.0
1 3	05.5
12 13	9.0
10 11	17.0

	NVS
	III
Femur	6360
Maximum length	67.0
Maximum proximal width	13.0
Maximum distal width	13.0
Minimum width of the diaphysis	6.0

	NVS
	III
Tibiotarsus	629
3 4	19.5
7 8	7.5



Gallus gallus dom.

		NVS
		VI
Tibiotarsus		306
12 13		160.0
1 4		12.0
7 9		14.5
5 6		10.5
9 10		17.5

Tarsometatarsus

Maximum length	120.0
Maximum proximal width	20.0
Maximum distal width	21.0
Length of the spur	37.0
Height of the spur	14.0 14.0
	1 ind.

Tibiotarsus

12 13	160.0
3 4	12.0
7 8	14.5
5 6	10.5
9 10	17.5

Avis sp.

		KKL
Carpometacarpus		
1 2		68.0
3 4		19.0
5 6		13.0
7 9		5.0

[illegible]

Table 16. The age at which pig (Sus sp.), sheep/goat (Ovis/Capra), and cattle (Bos sp.) were slaughtered, according to the eruption of the teeth in maxilla and mandibula.

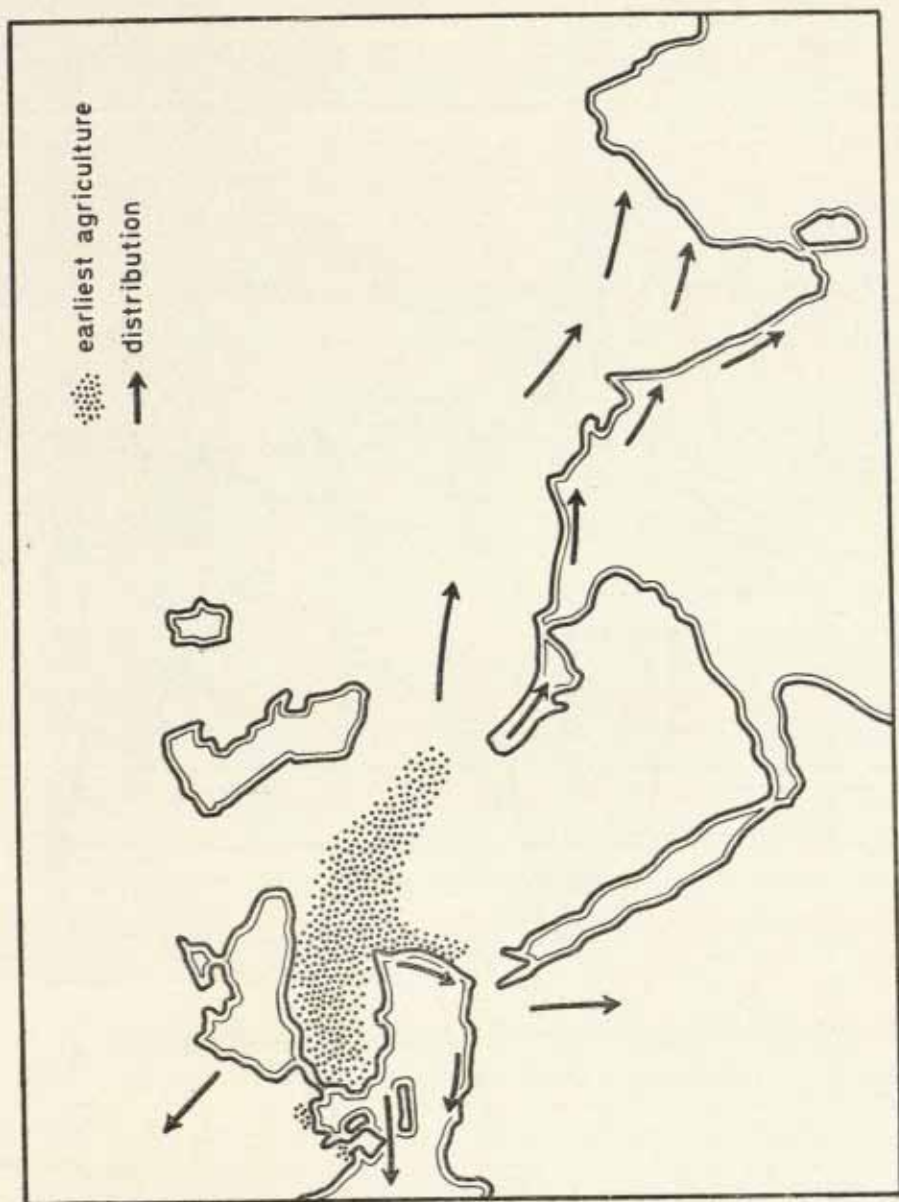


Fig. 1 Dispersion of the domesticated animals from the Near East and other areas.



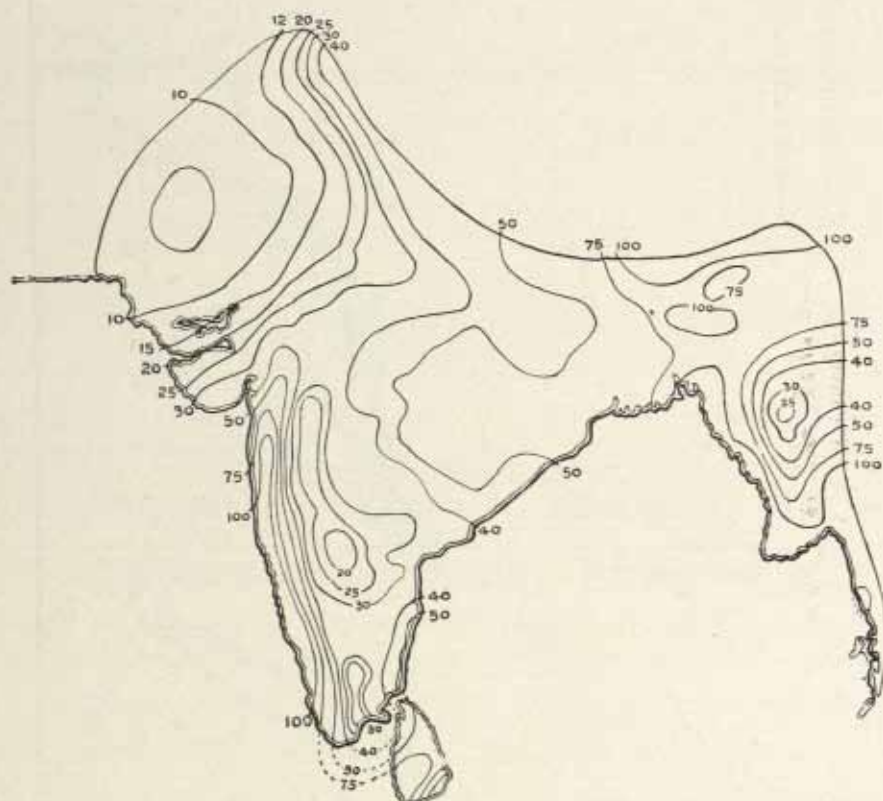


Fig. 2 Mean annual rainfall in inches (after Salim Ali 1949).

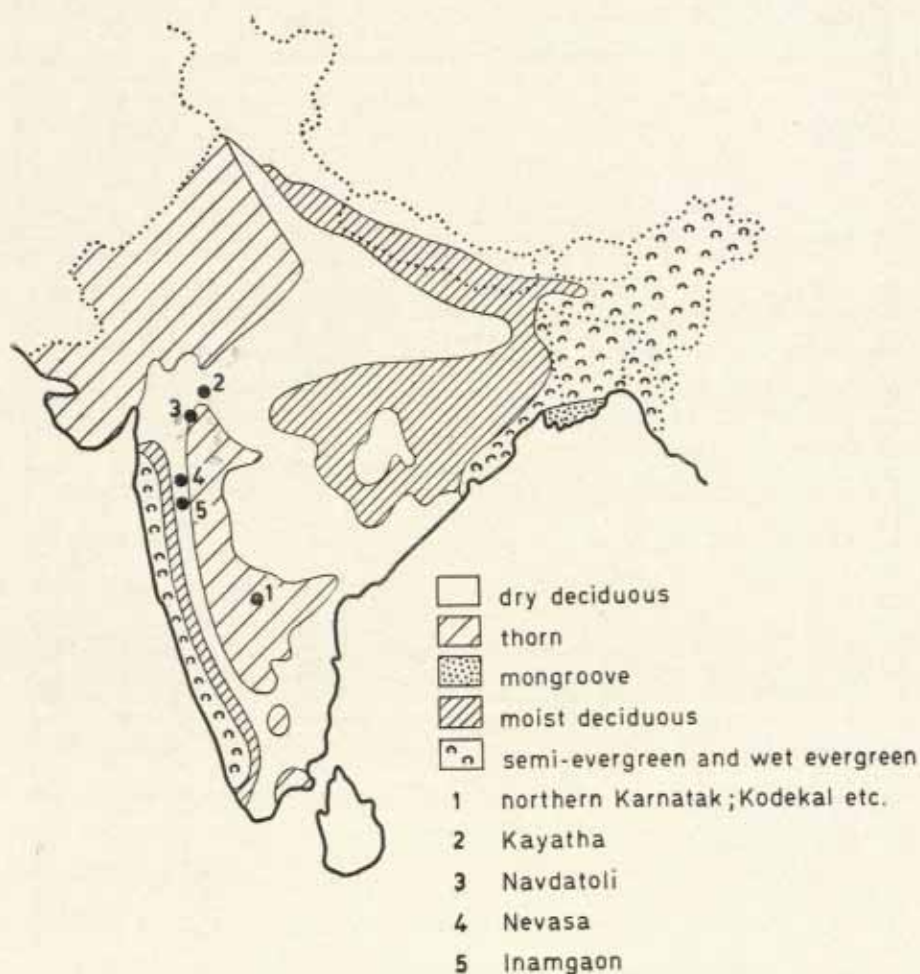


Fig. 3 The major vegetation areas (after Schaller 1967), and the location of the sites (Roelink, B. A. I., Groningen).

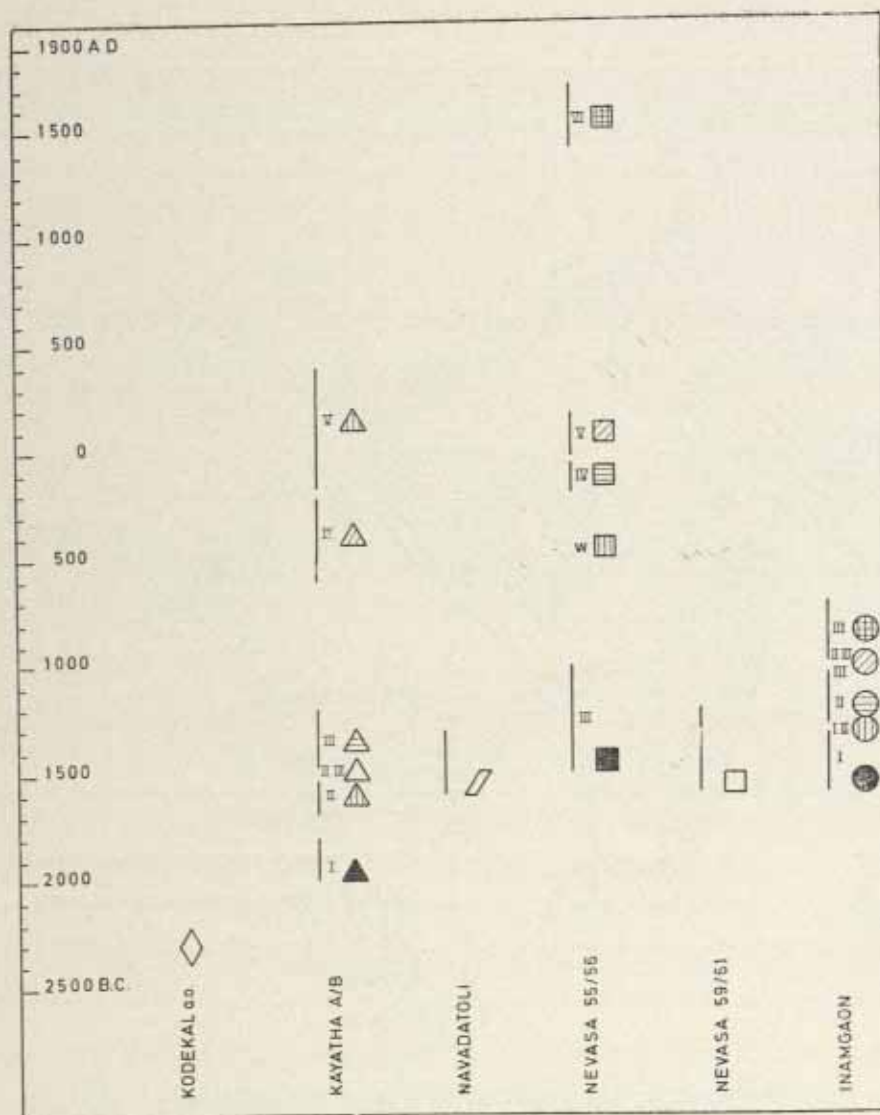


Fig. 4 The occupation phases of the ash-mounds, Kayatha, Navdatoli, Nevasa (1955-1961) and Navdatoli. The symbol refers to the diagrams (fig. 26, 33, 35, 39).



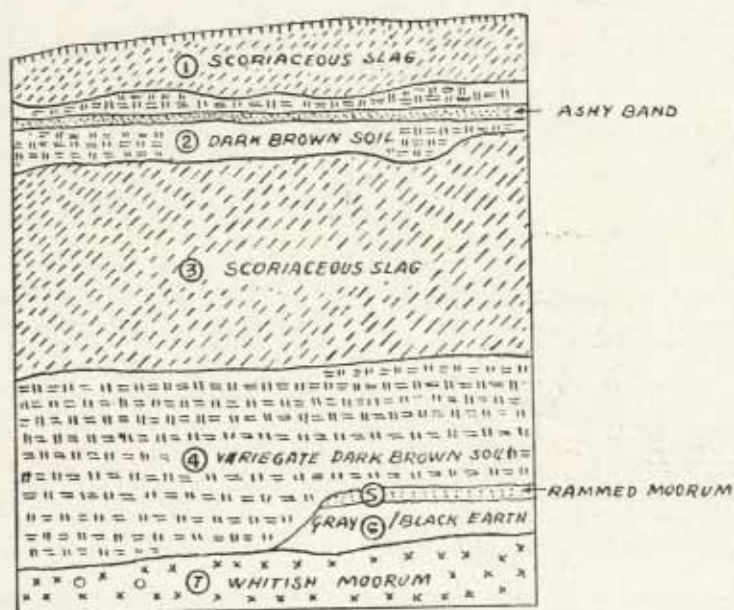


Fig. 5 Kodekal, trench I, section facing north (after Paddayya 1971).

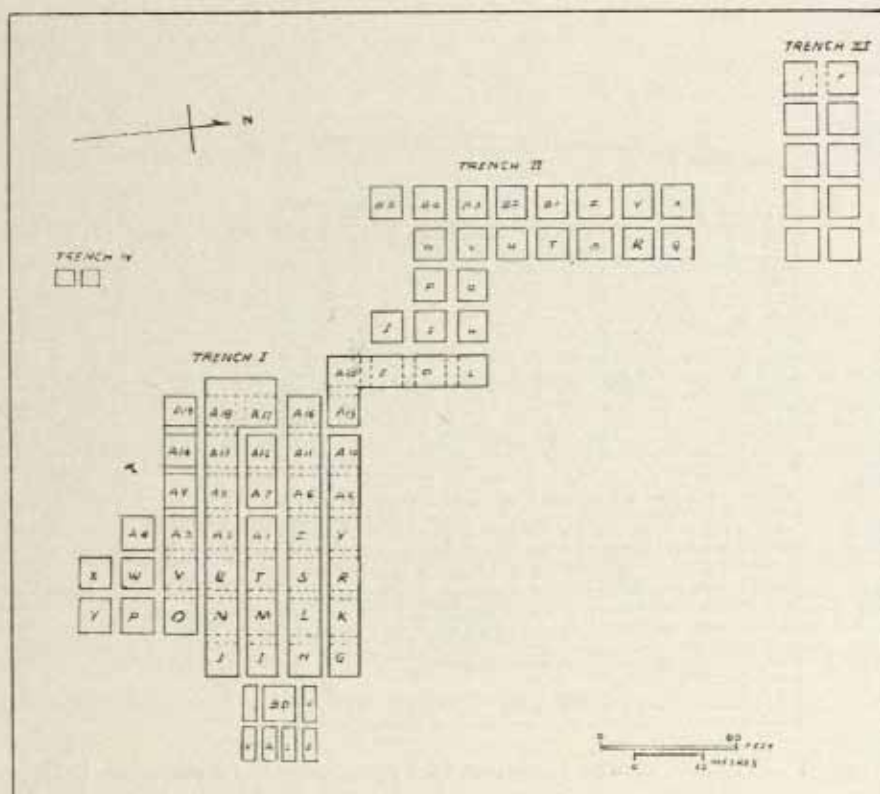


Fig. 6 The excavated trenches (I-IV) in Navdatoli. The faunal material was mainly collected in trenches I and II.

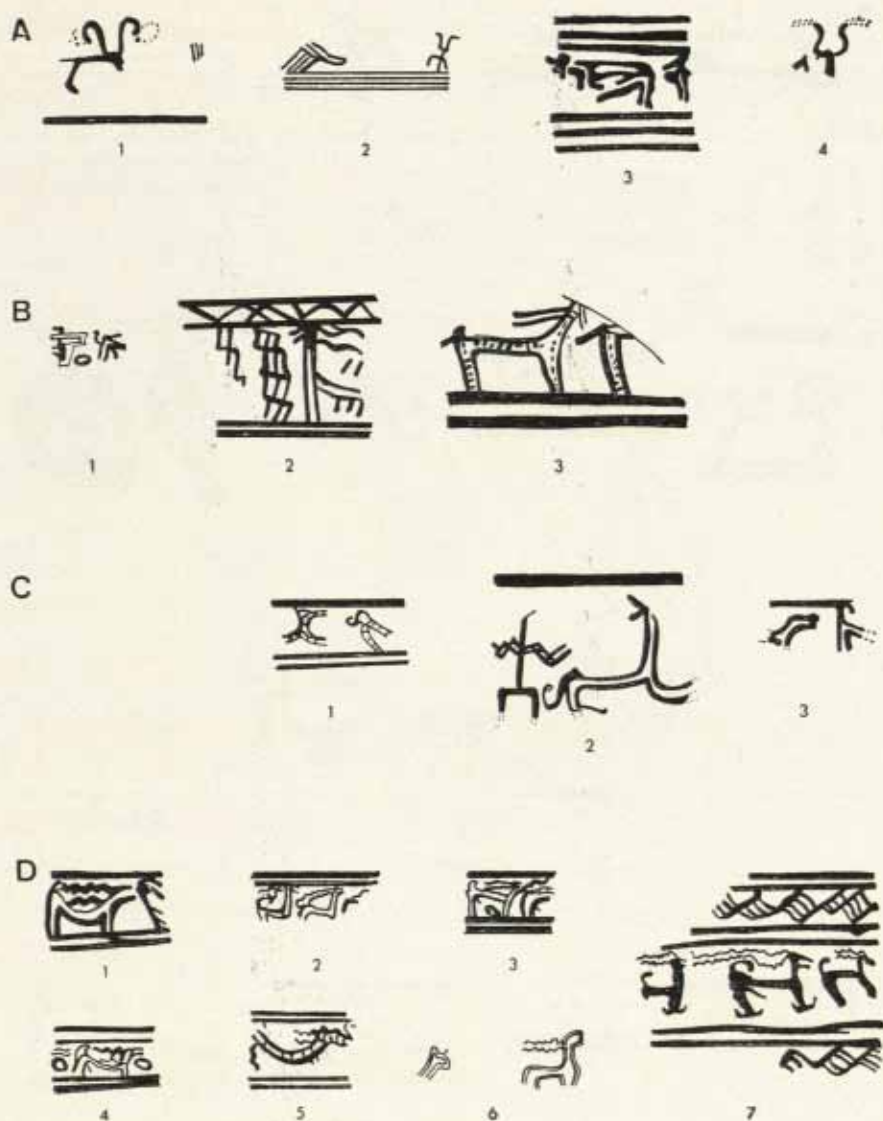


Fig. 7 Animals depicted on Navdatoli pottery.

A : 1, 2, 3, 4—cattle.

B : 1, 2, 3—goat.

C : 1, 2, 3—dog.

D : 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6—blackbuck; 7—♂ blackbucks pursuing ♀ (Warke, Deccan College, Poona).

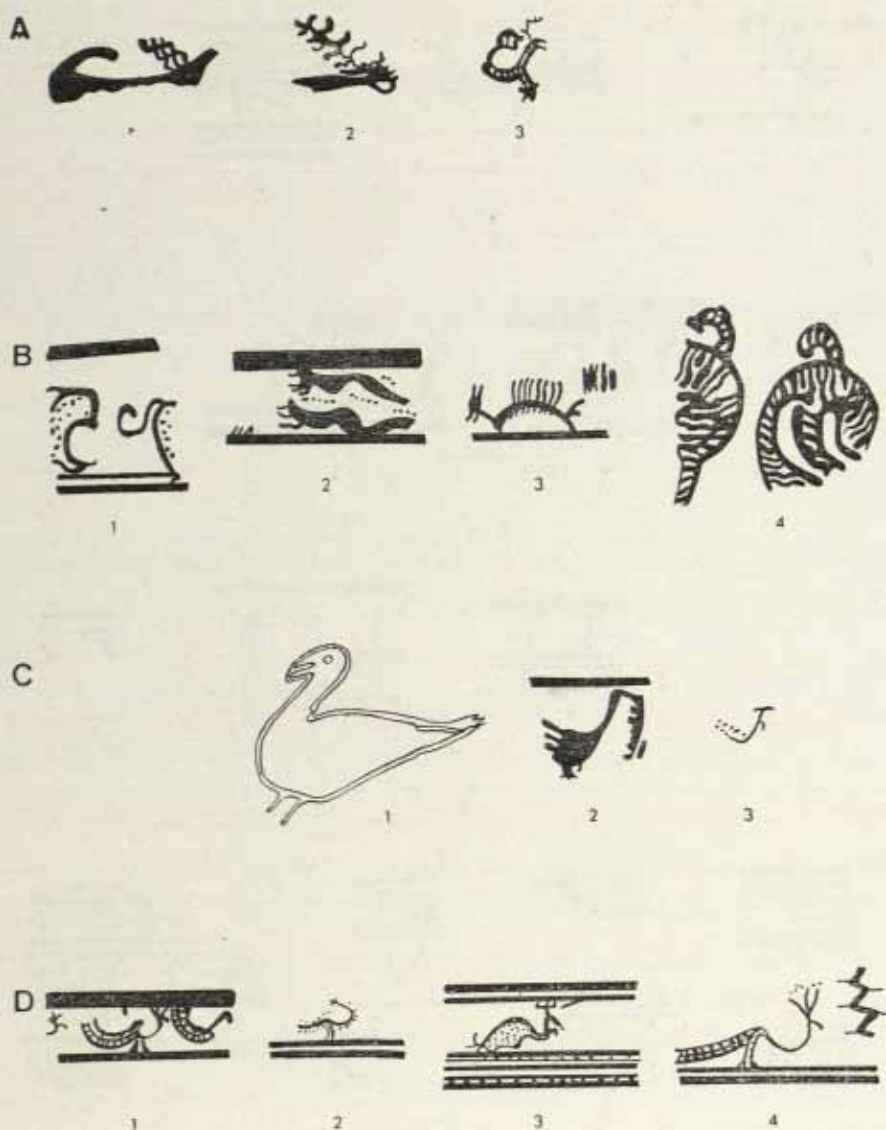


Fig. 8 A : 1, 2, 3, deer.  
 B : 1, panther; 2 ?, 3, porcupine; 4, tiger.  
 C : 1, pigeon; 2, goose; 3, domestic cock.  
 D : 1, 2, 3, 4, peacocks (Warke, Deccan College, Poona).



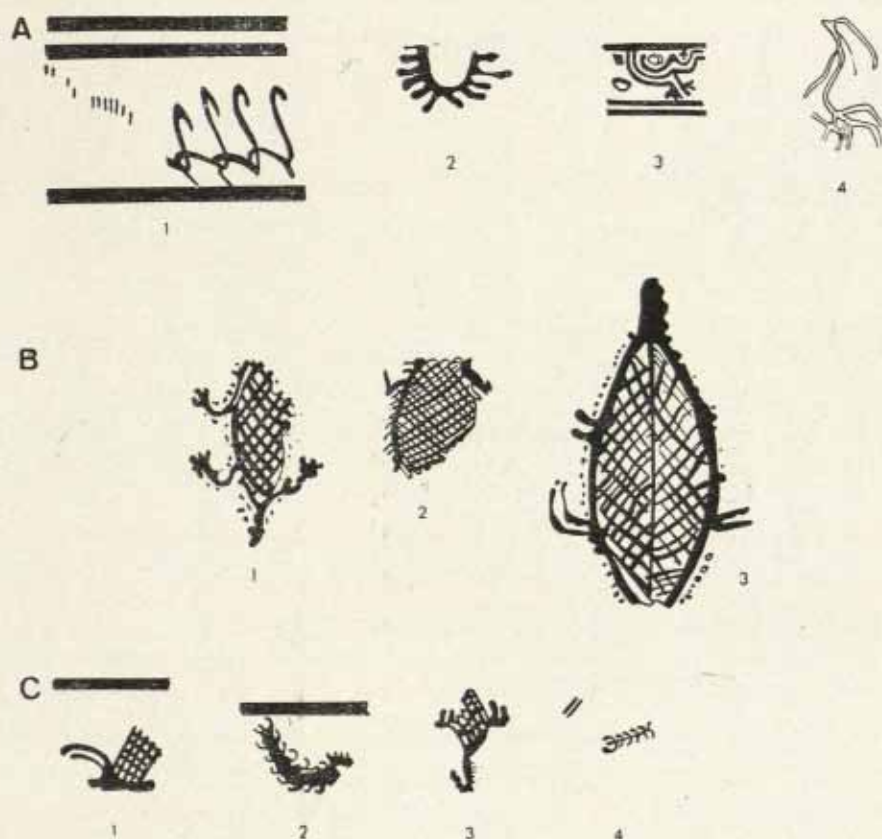


Fig. 9 A : 1, flamingo; 2, bird of prey or vulture; 3, little egret.  
 B : 1, 2, 3, crocodiles.  
 C : 1, butterfly; 2, centipede; 3, scorpion; 4, centipede (Warke, Deccan College, Poona).

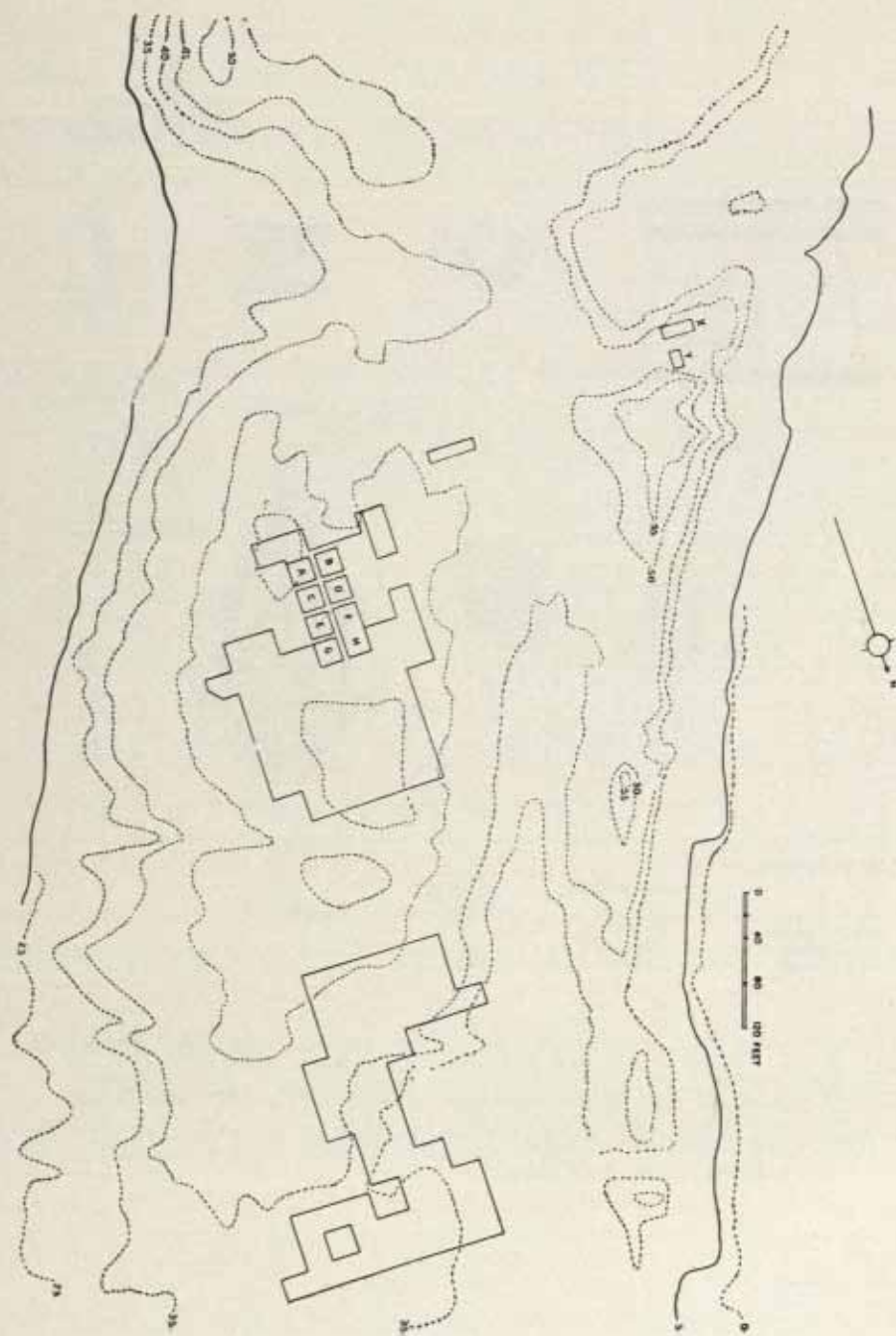
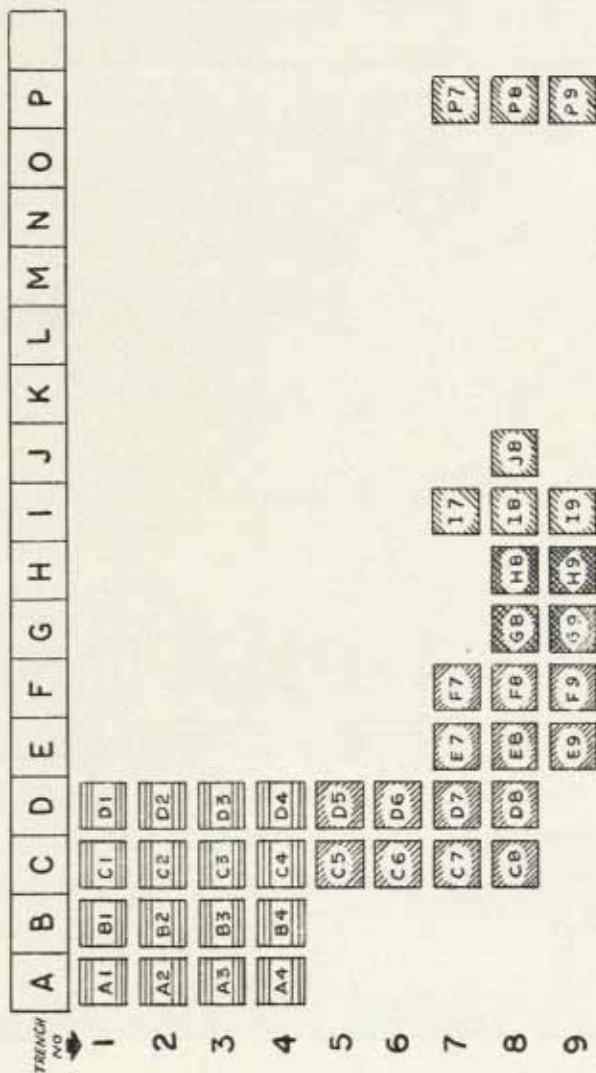


Fig. 10 The dwelling mound of Nevasa and the excavated areas (after Sankalia et al. 1960).

# INAMGAON EXCAVATIONS



 EXCAVATED IN 1968-69  
 EXCAVATED IN 1969-70  
 EXCAVATED IN 1970-71

MOUND - 1

Fig. 11 The excavated trenches of Inamgaon (after Ansari 1975).

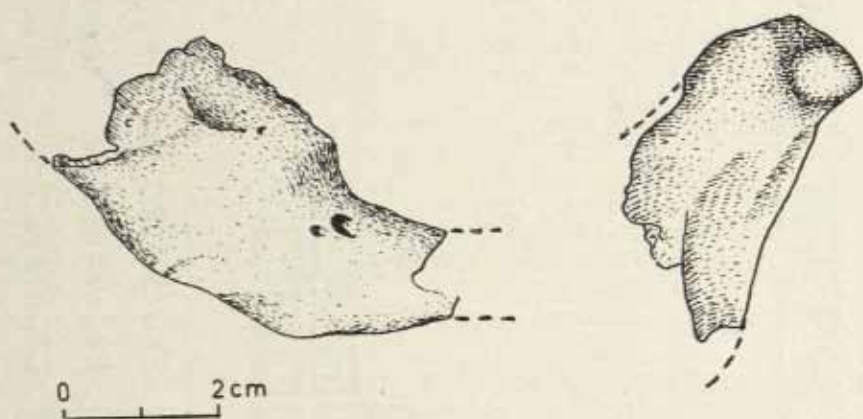


Fig. 12 The two pieces of the mandibula of an Indian porcupine (*Hystrix-indica*) found at Nevasa.



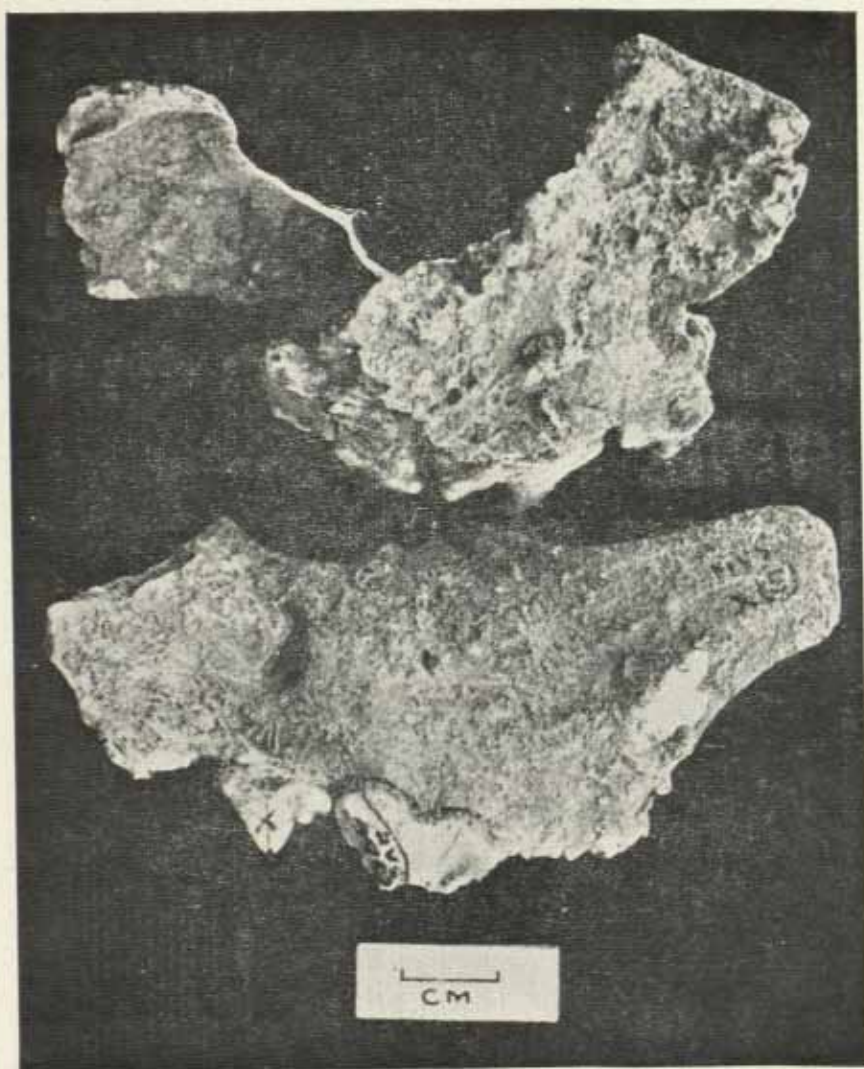


Fig. 13 Two l. maxillae of a dog, Nevasa III (1955-1956).

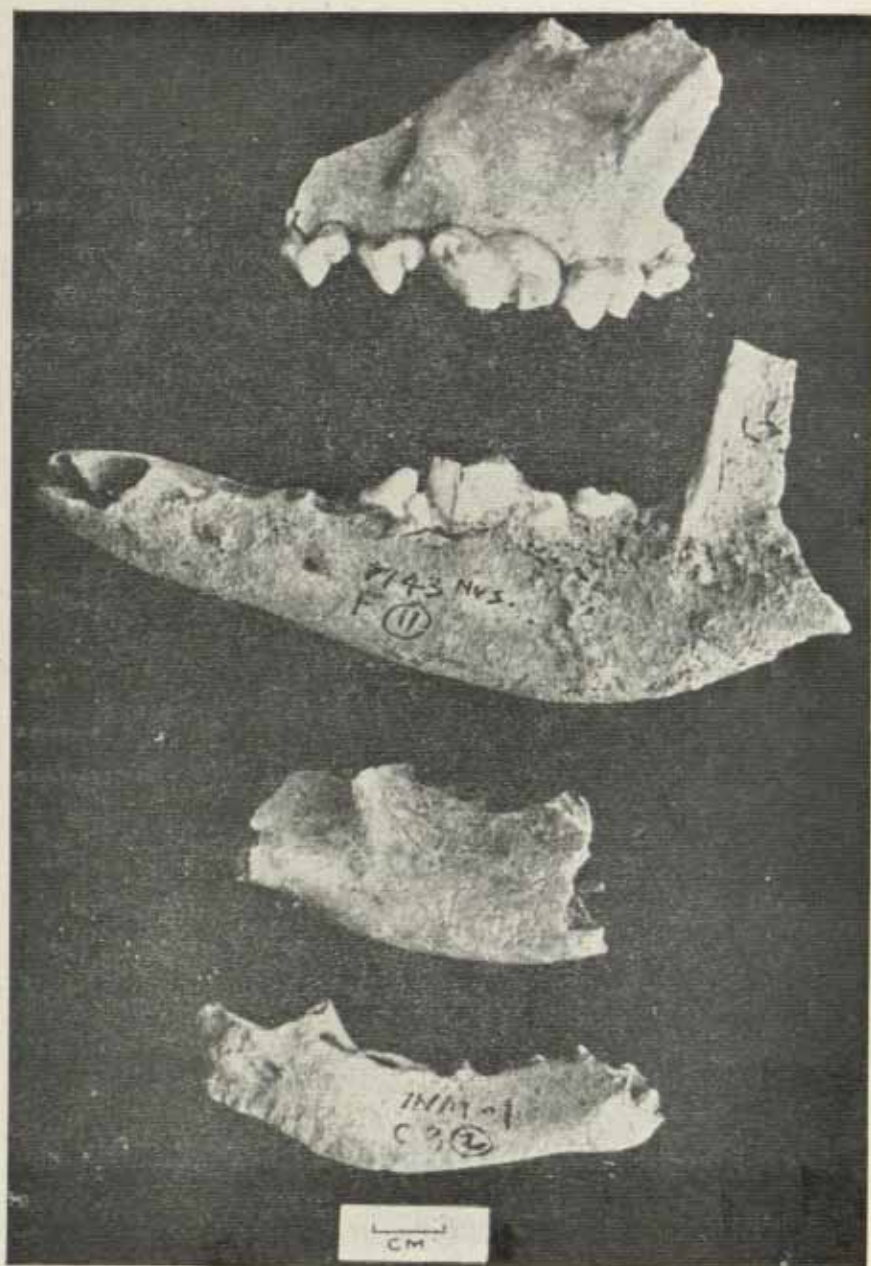


Fig. 14a Canidae, from bottom to top : mandibula (Inamgaon C3 2, Inamgaon A2 6, Nevasa 7143 F 11) and maxilla (Inamgaon).

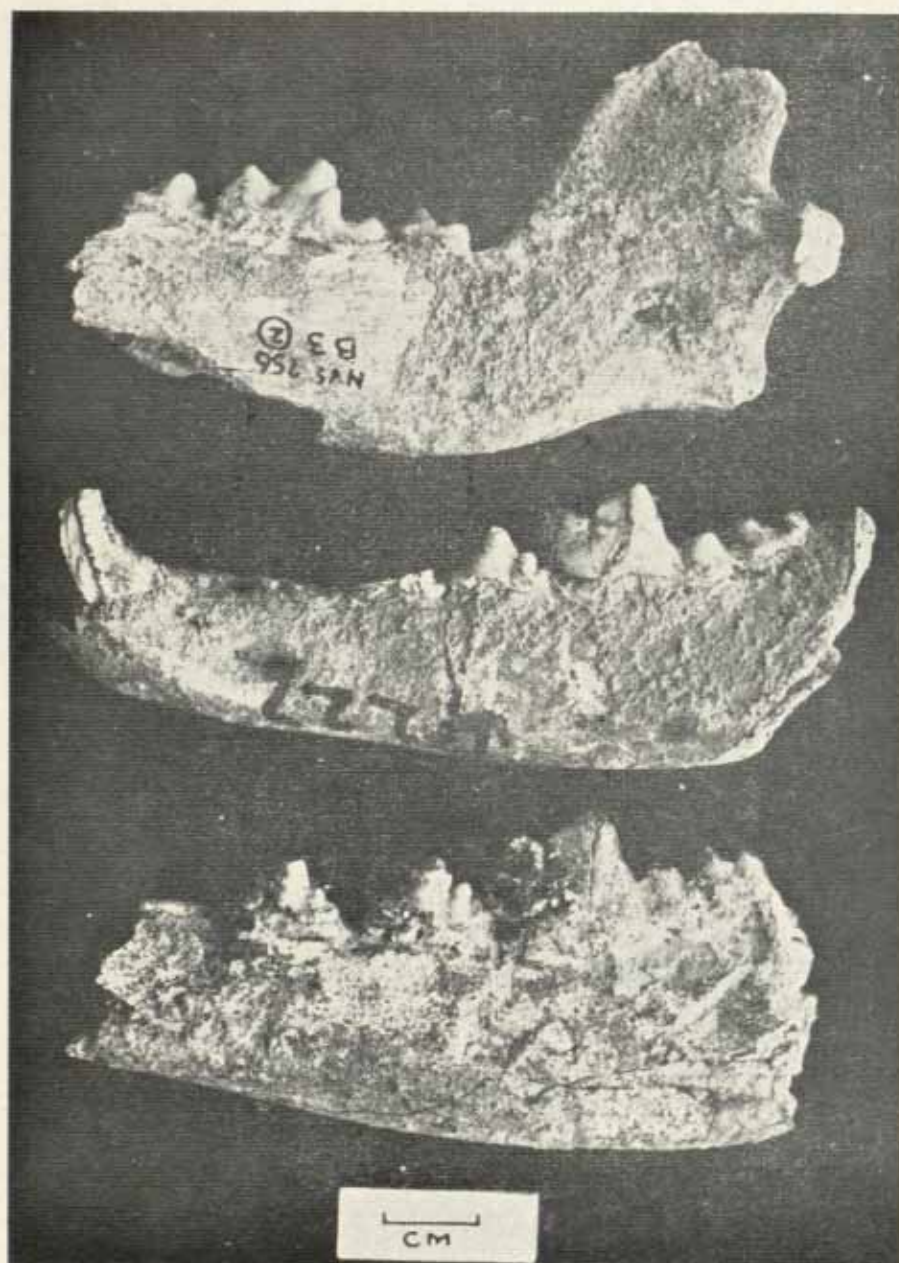


Fig. 14b Mandibulae of a canid, from bottom to top : Nevasa 1272, NVS 4222 4, Nevasa 356 B3 2 (without P3).

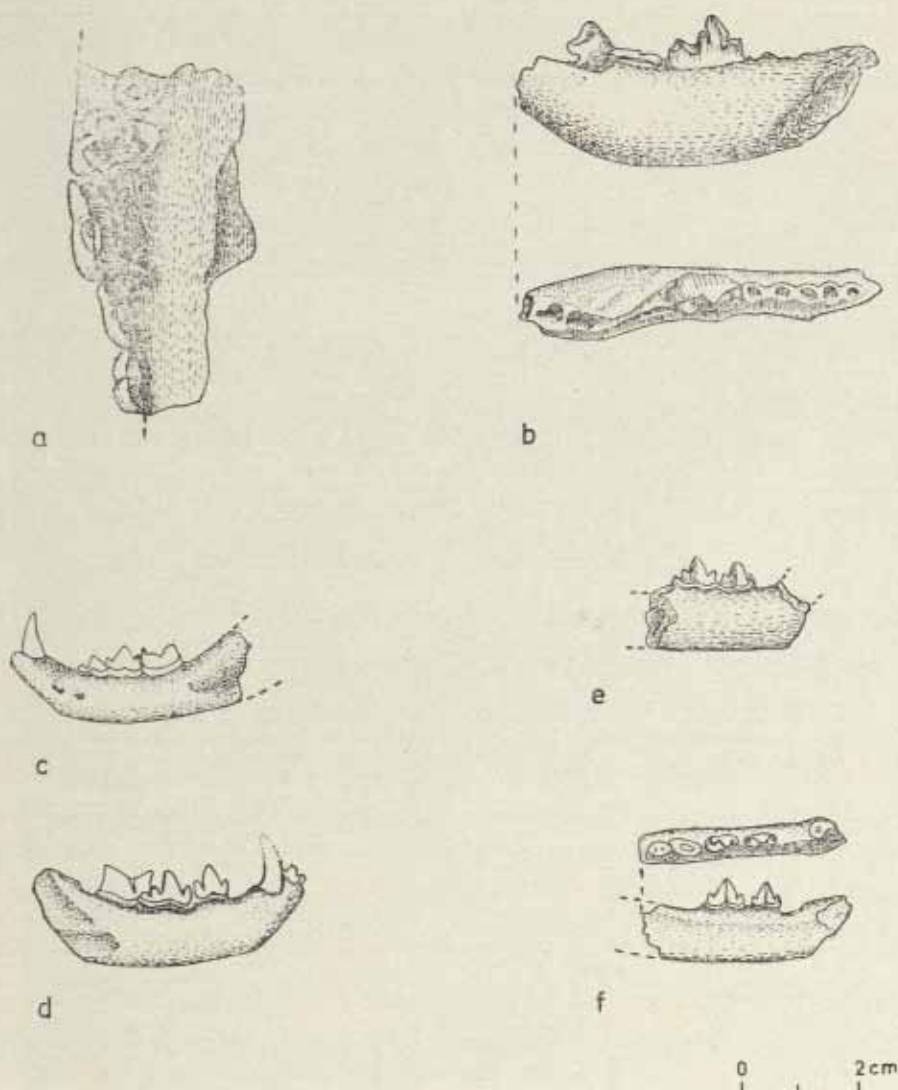


Fig. 15 A : Mandibula of a young canid (Nevasa 3107 x 4; c, d, e, f : Mandibulae of catlike animals found at Nevasa.



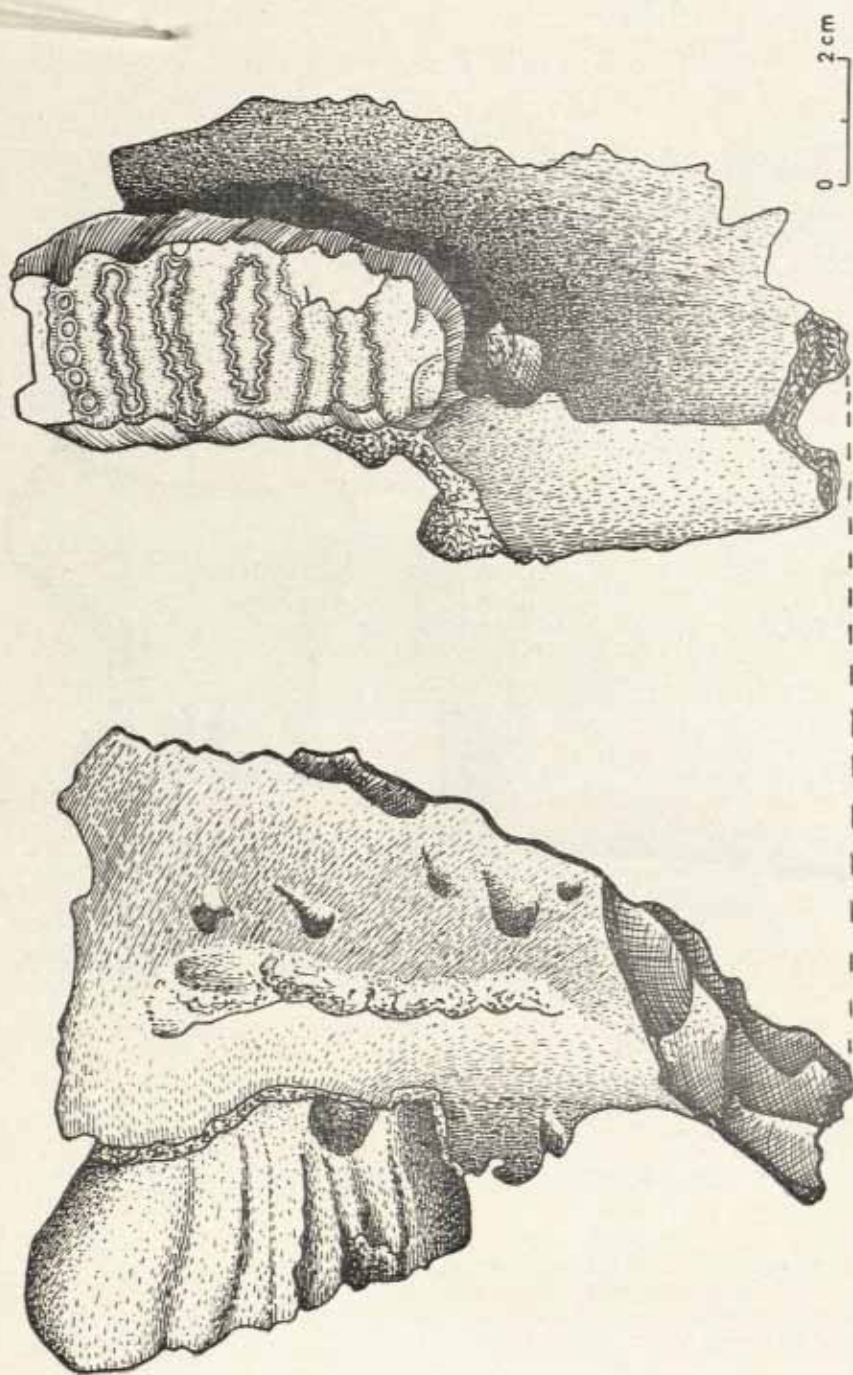


Fig. 16 The maxilla of a young elephant found in Nevasa—V NVS 5541 I 4.

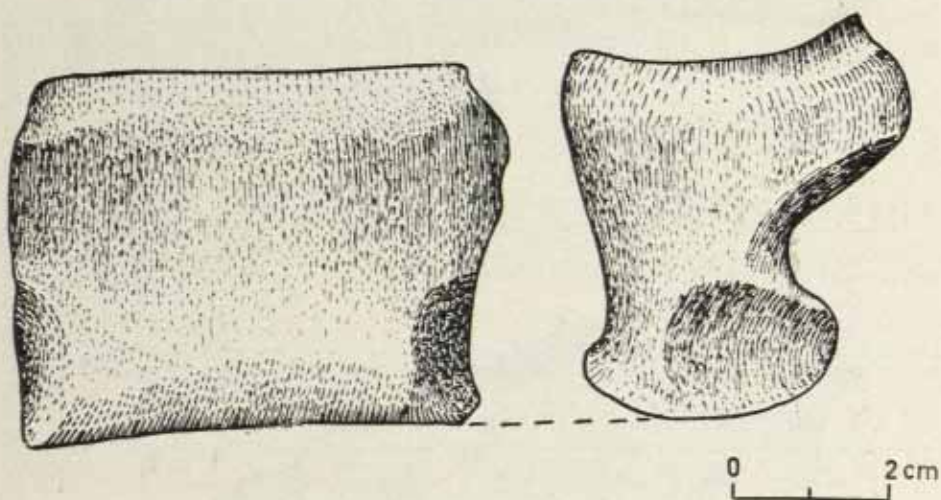


Fig. 17 The second phalanx of an elephant found in Inamgaon (H2 4).

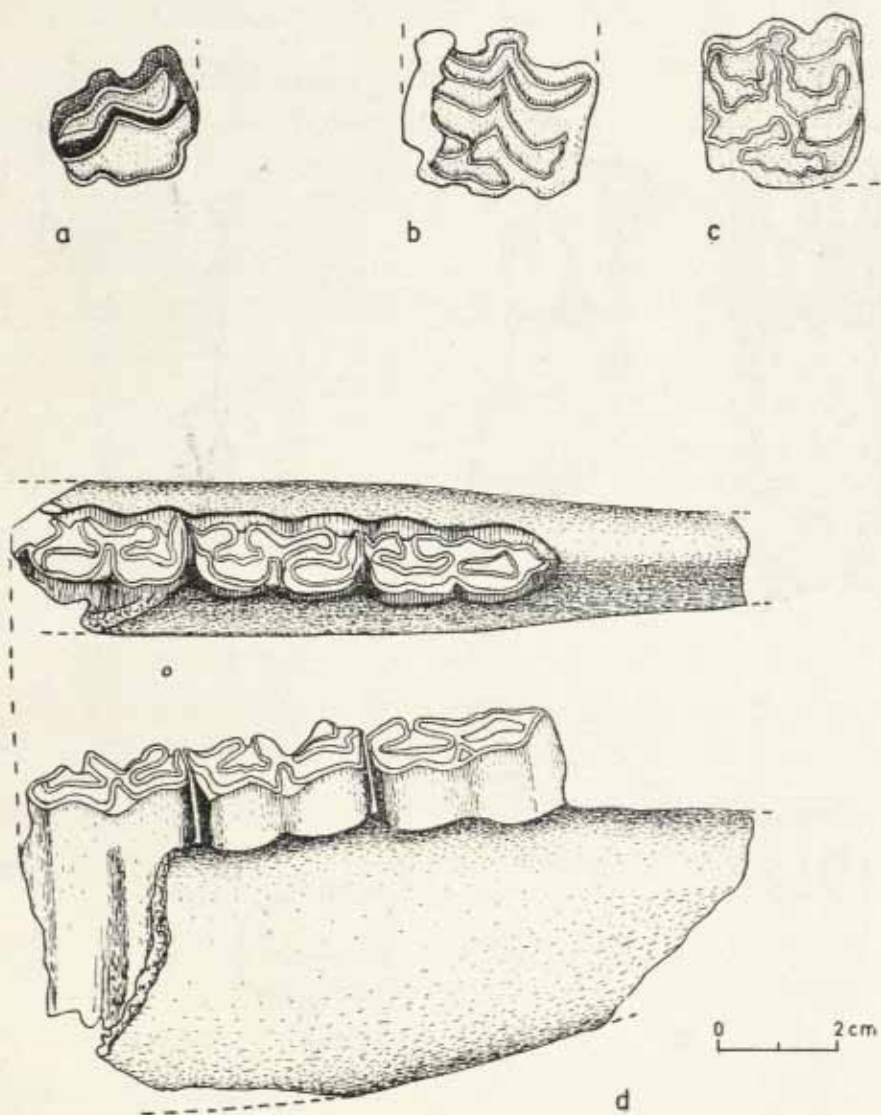


Fig. 18 Equid. a : P2 Nevasa 4758 x 5; b : 1. P<sup>4</sup>/M<sup>1</sup> Nevasa G 129 Fv Ib;  
c : 1. M<sup>2</sup> Inamgaon; d, r. mandibula, Nevasa NVS E 2.

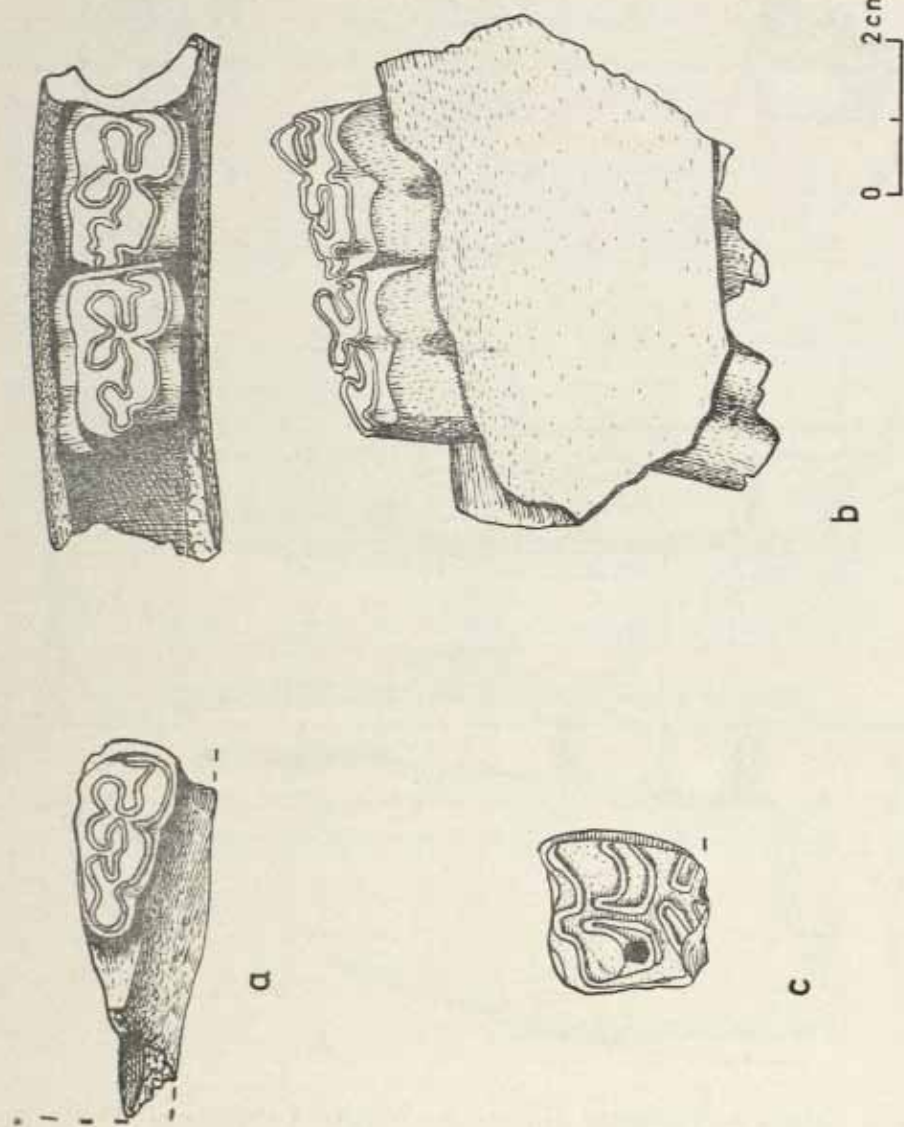


Fig. 19 Equid remains. a, r.  $M_3$  Navdatoli IV; b, r. mandibula with  $M_2$   $M_1$ , Navdatoli IK.3 (same piece); c, premolar or molar from the upper jaw, Nevasa 2759 238 2.



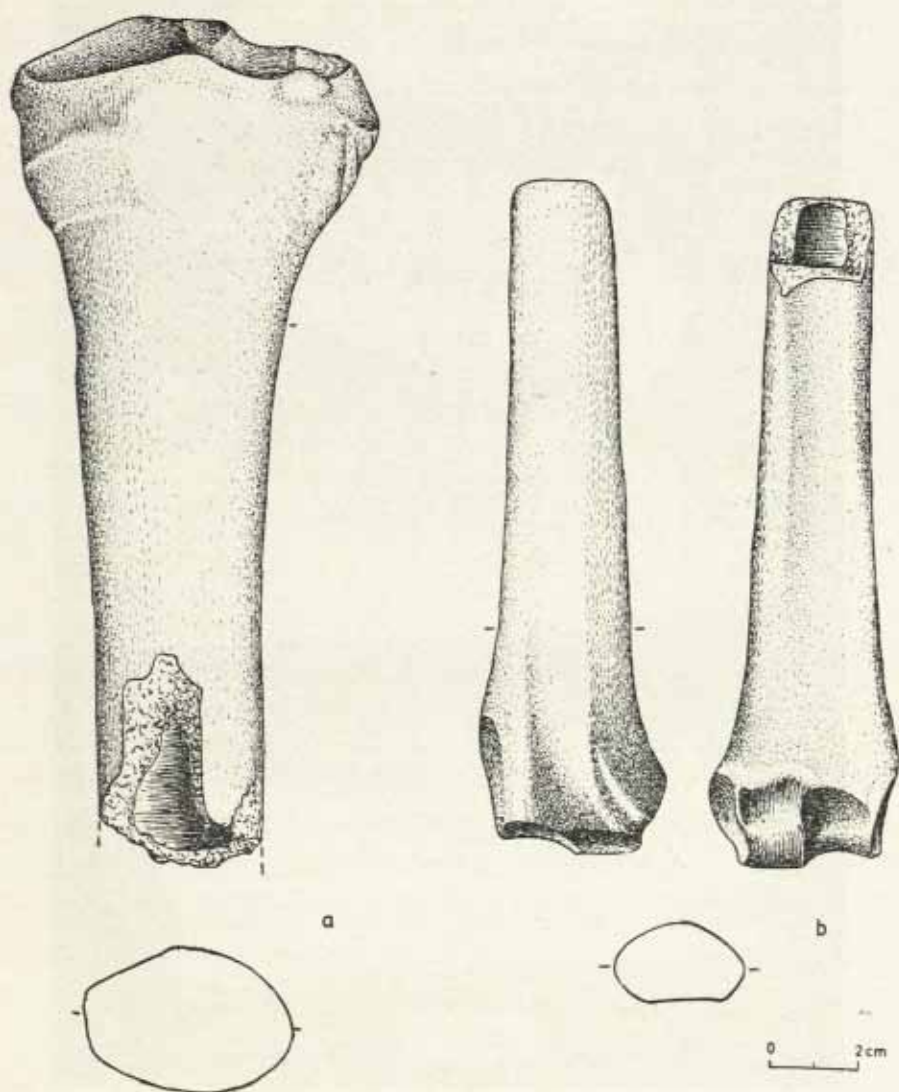


Fig. 20 Equid remains. Large and small radius from Navdatoli  
(NVS IV 157 III 19 2; IV 98 I).

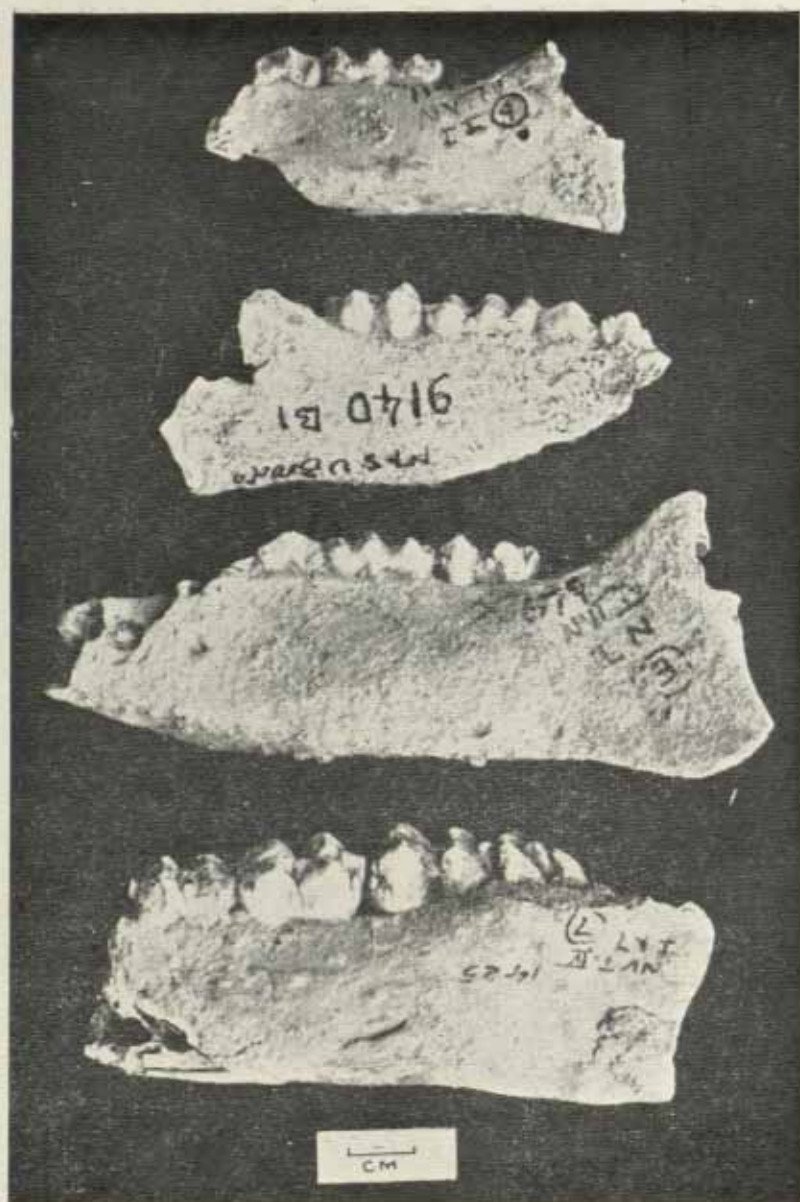


Fig. 21 Suid remains. Navdatoli. From top to bottom.  
 l. mandibula,  $-P_2 P_3$  ( $M_1$  not yet erupted) (11465 I 2)  
 r. mandibula,  $-P_1 P_2 P_3 M_1$  ( $M_2$  not yet erupted) (9140 Bl)  
 l. mandibula,  $-P_2 P_3 M_1 ?$  (679 I N 3)  
 l. mandibula,  $- - -M_1 M_2 M_3$  (2/3 used) (1425)

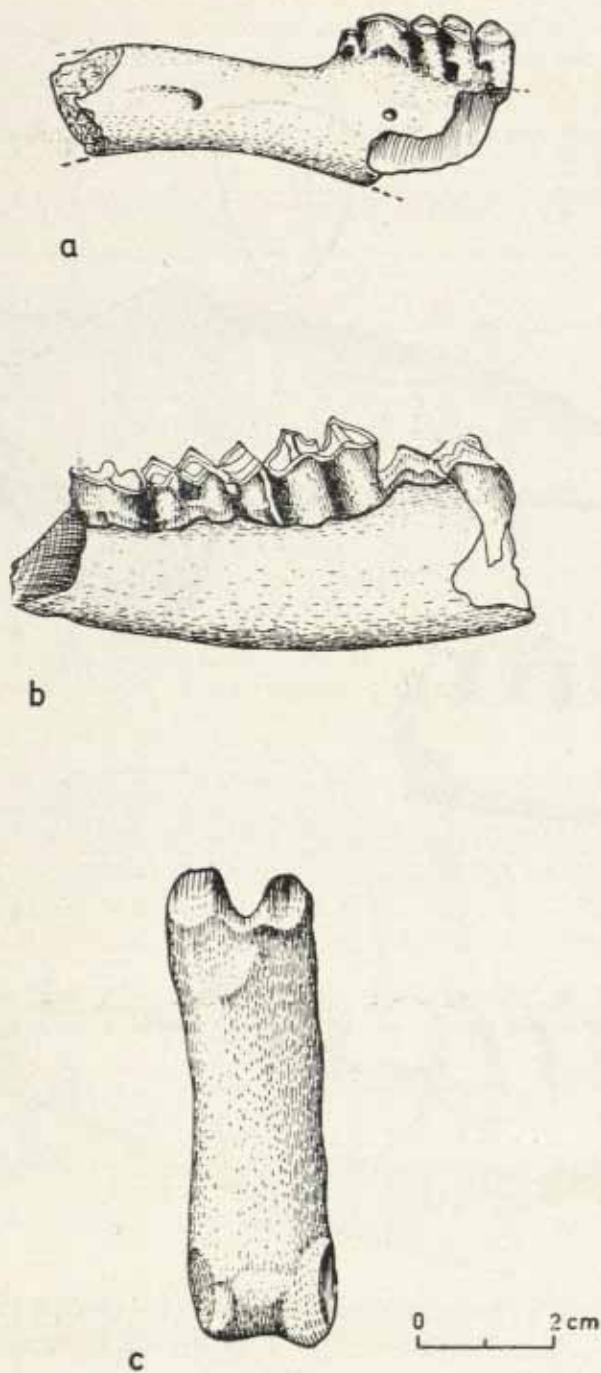


Fig. 22 Cervidae remains. a : l. mandibula ( $P_1 P_2 P_3$ ), Inamgaon (D, 2);  
 b : l. mandibula ( $P_2 P_3 M_1 M_2$  erupting), Nevasa (4229 180 4);  
 c : phalanx II either of sambar or nilgai, (1A1 14).

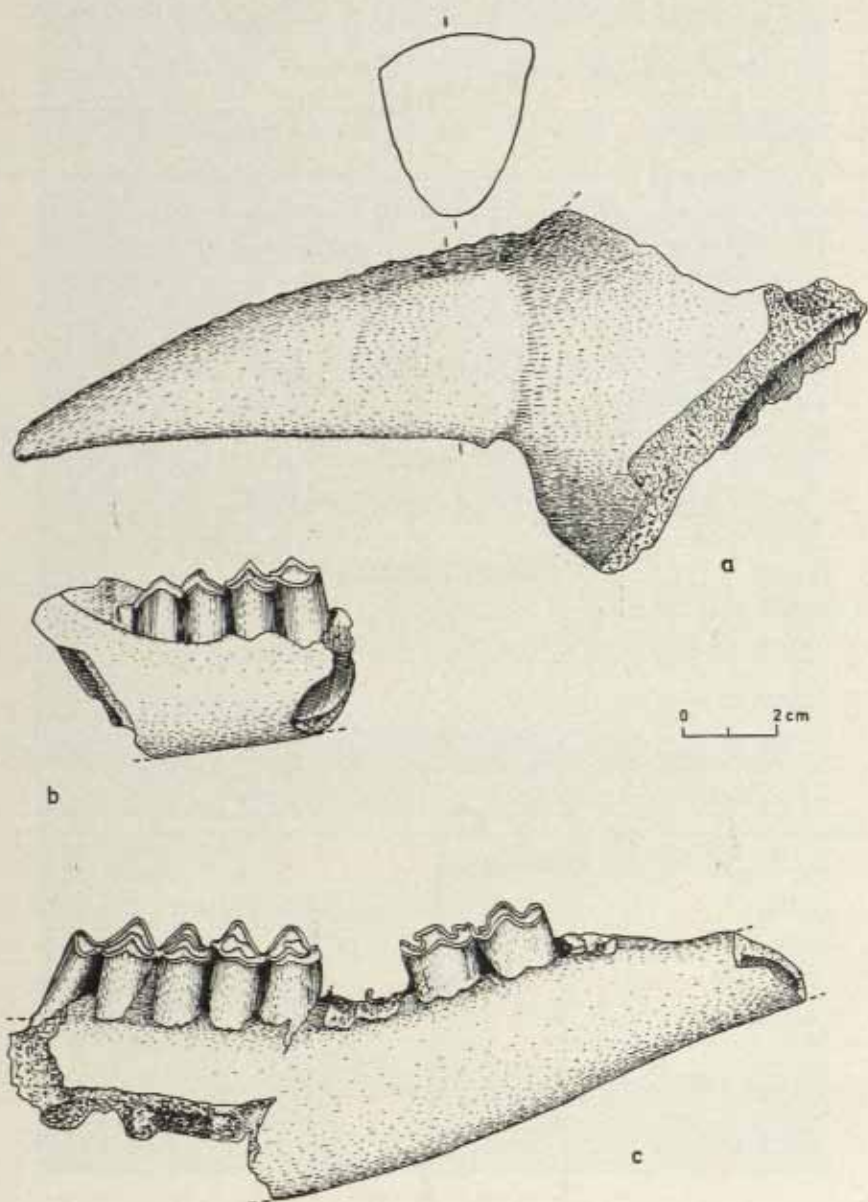


Fig. 23 Nilgai. a : horncore from Navdatoli III (148-2); b : r. mandibula ( $M_2$   $M_3$ ), Navdatoli (1023 I IV 4); c : r. mandibula  $P_2$   $P_4$ - $M_2$   $M_3$ , Navdatoli (12849 IV 8).



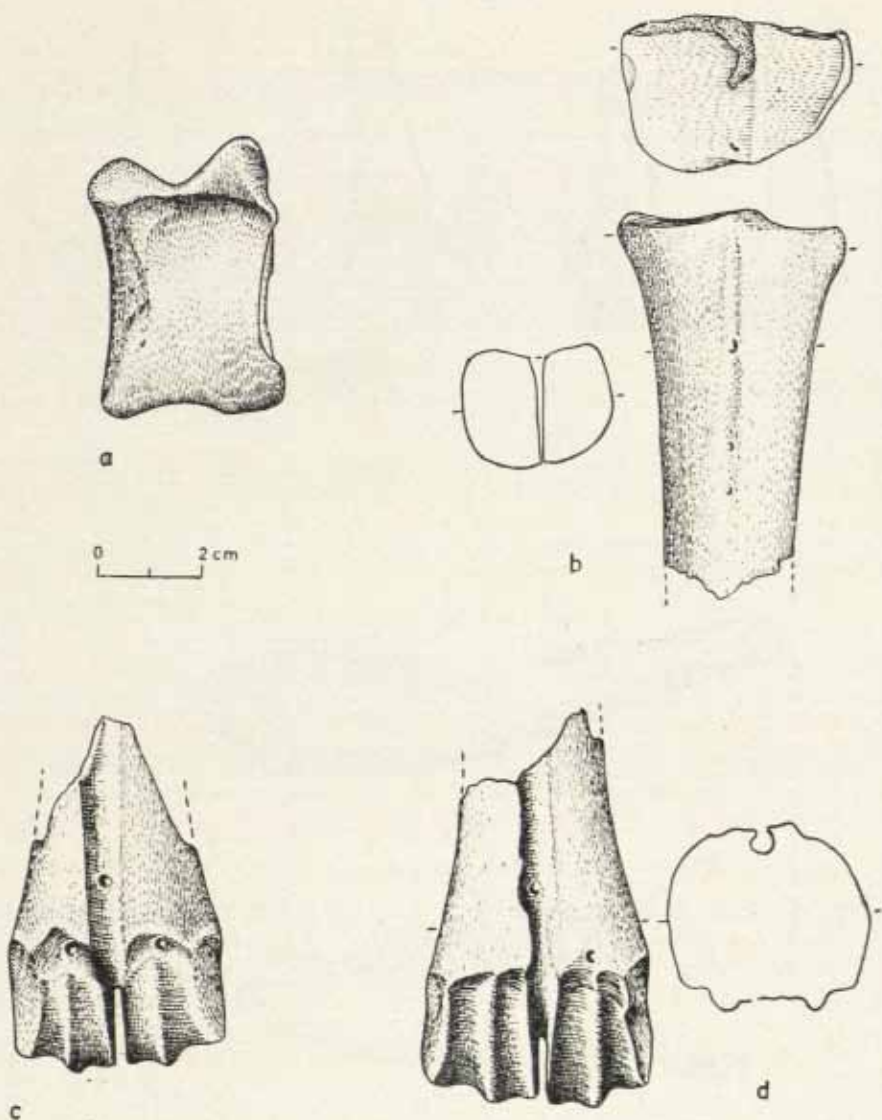


Fig. 24 Nilgai. a : astragalus, Inamgaon (I 8 3); b : metacarpus, Inamgaon (D 2 2); c : metacarpus, Inamgaon (INM-1); d : metatarsus? Inamgaon (INM-1 I2 2).

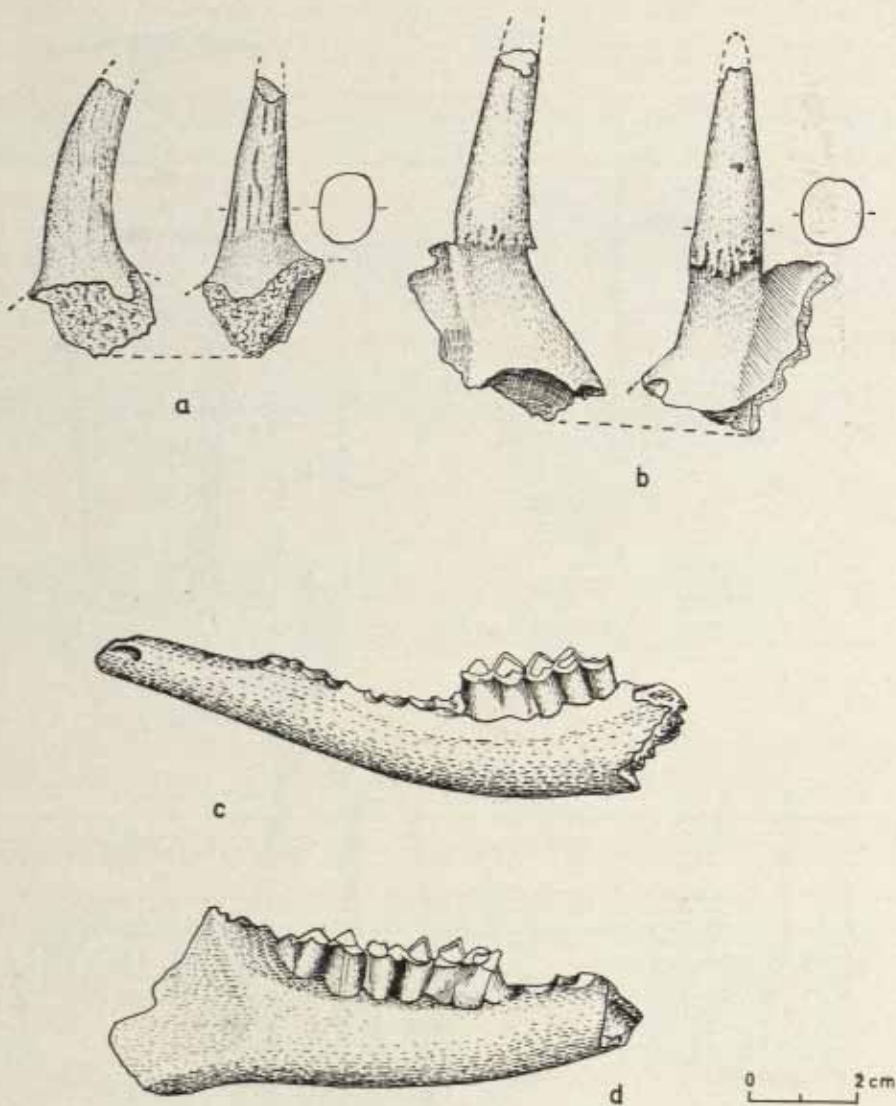
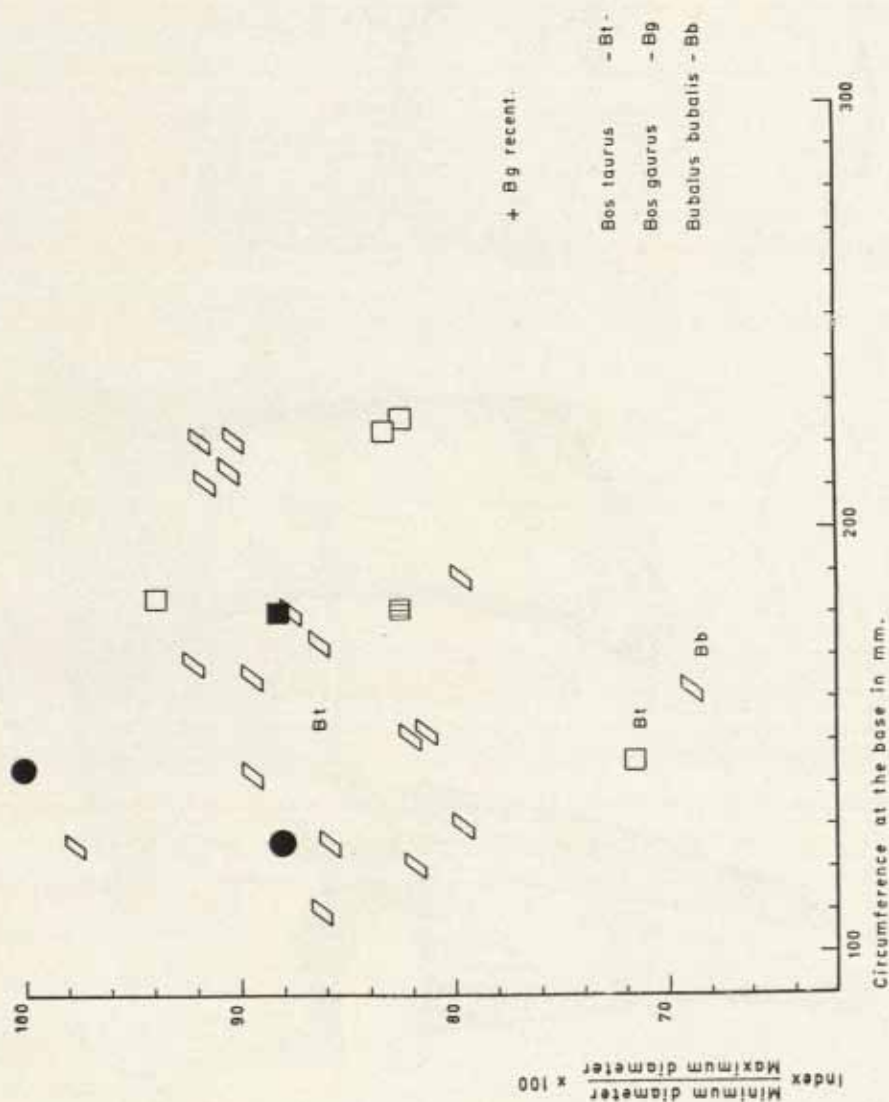


Fig. 25 Four-horned antelopes (chowsingha). a : horncore, Inamgaon (INM-1 H9 11); b : horncore, Inamgaon (INM-1 1 8 2); c : l. mandibula ( $M_2$   $M_3$ ), Nevasa (4226 Tr 163 B 4); d : r. mandibula ( $M_1$   $M_2$   $M_3$ ), Nevasa (1781 Tr 27 2).



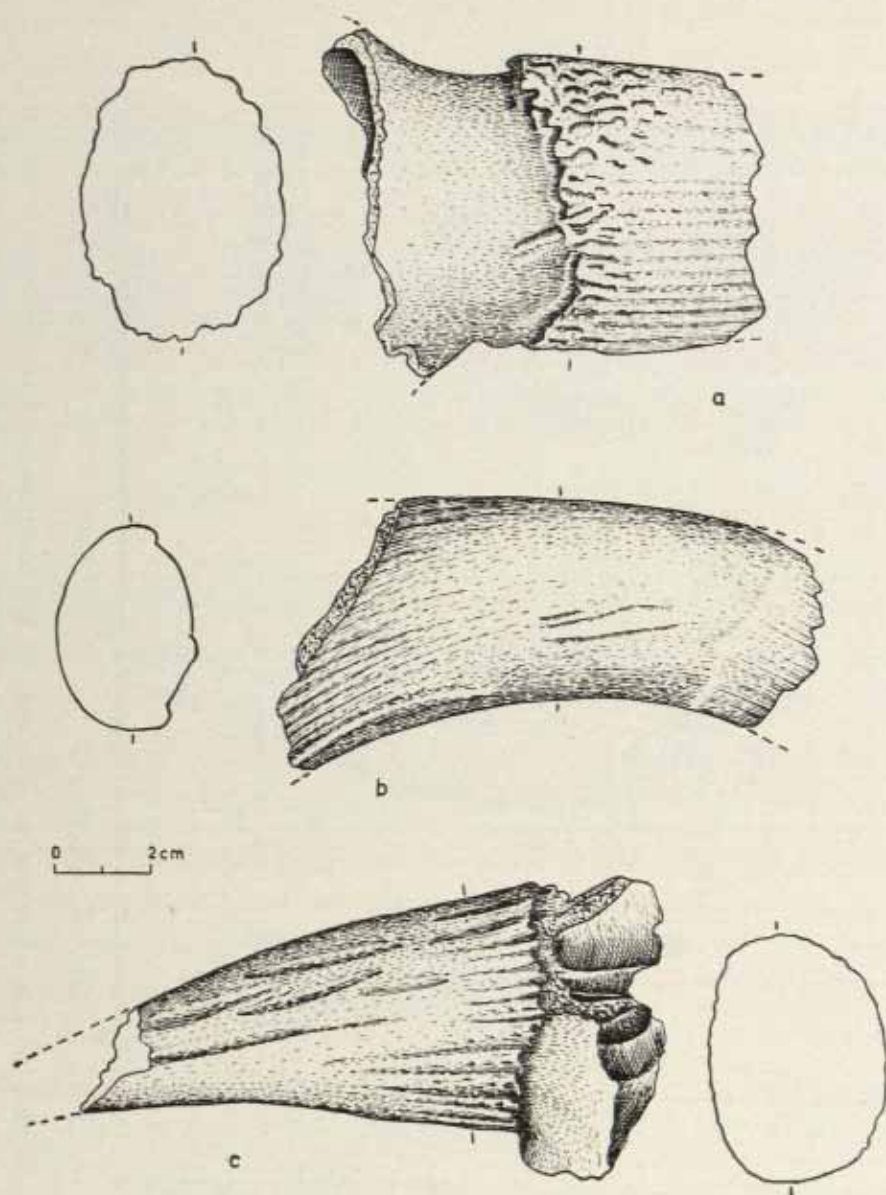


Fig. 27 *Bubalus bubalis*. a : horncore from Navdatoli (3395 Tr. 1);  
 b : horncore from Nevasa (2872 Tr. 43 2).  
*Bos taurus (indicus)*; c : horncore from Nevasa (2569 Tr. 14 2).



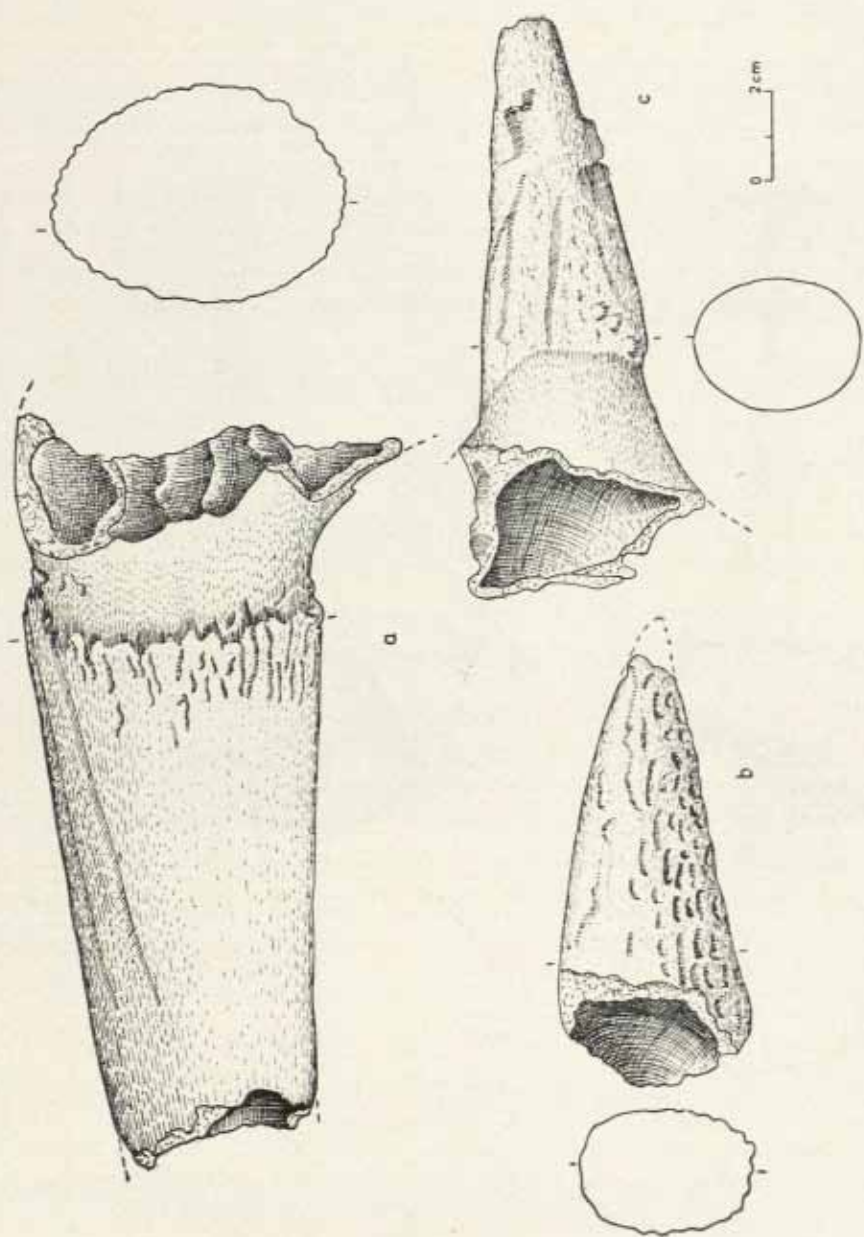


Fig. 28 *Bos taurus* (indicus). a : r. horncore, Navdatoli (V II Tr. 6); b : horncore, Navdatoli (IV Tr. I 10; c : horncore, Navdatoli (1096 I F 2).

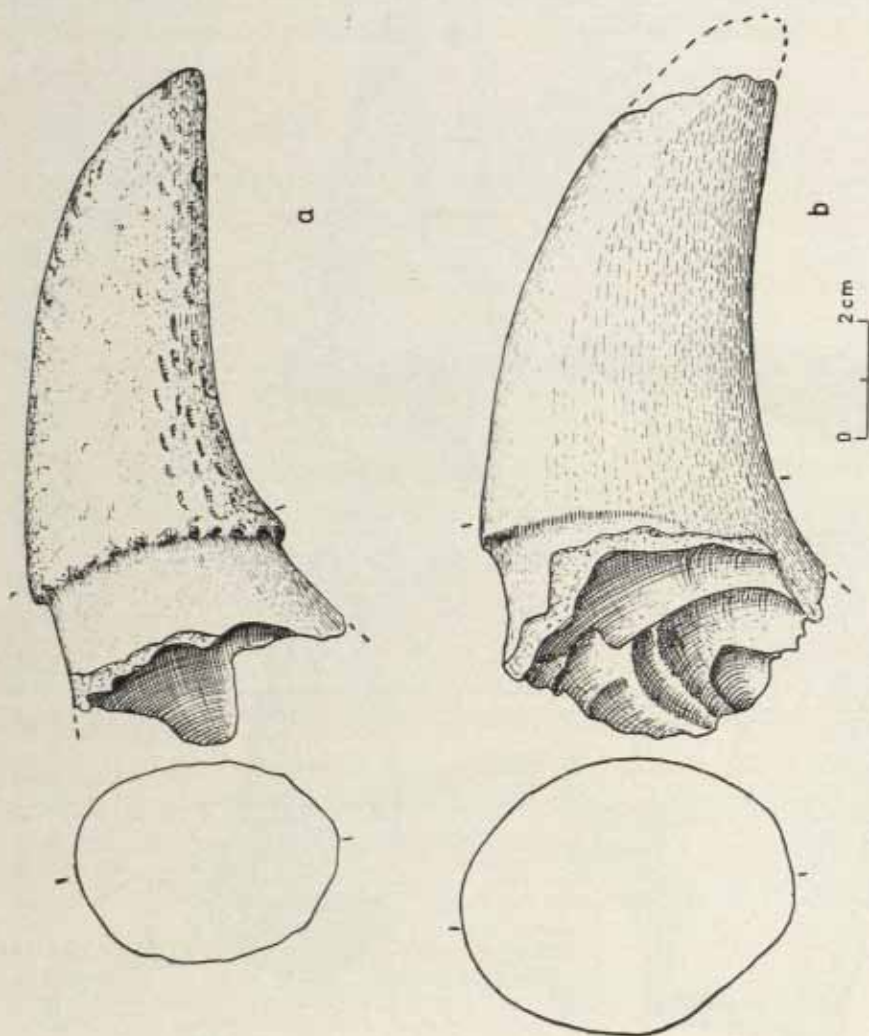


Fig. 29 *Bos taurus* (indicus). a : l. horncore Navdatoli (196, Tr. III 2) ;  
b : Navdatoli (5630, Tr. II 3).

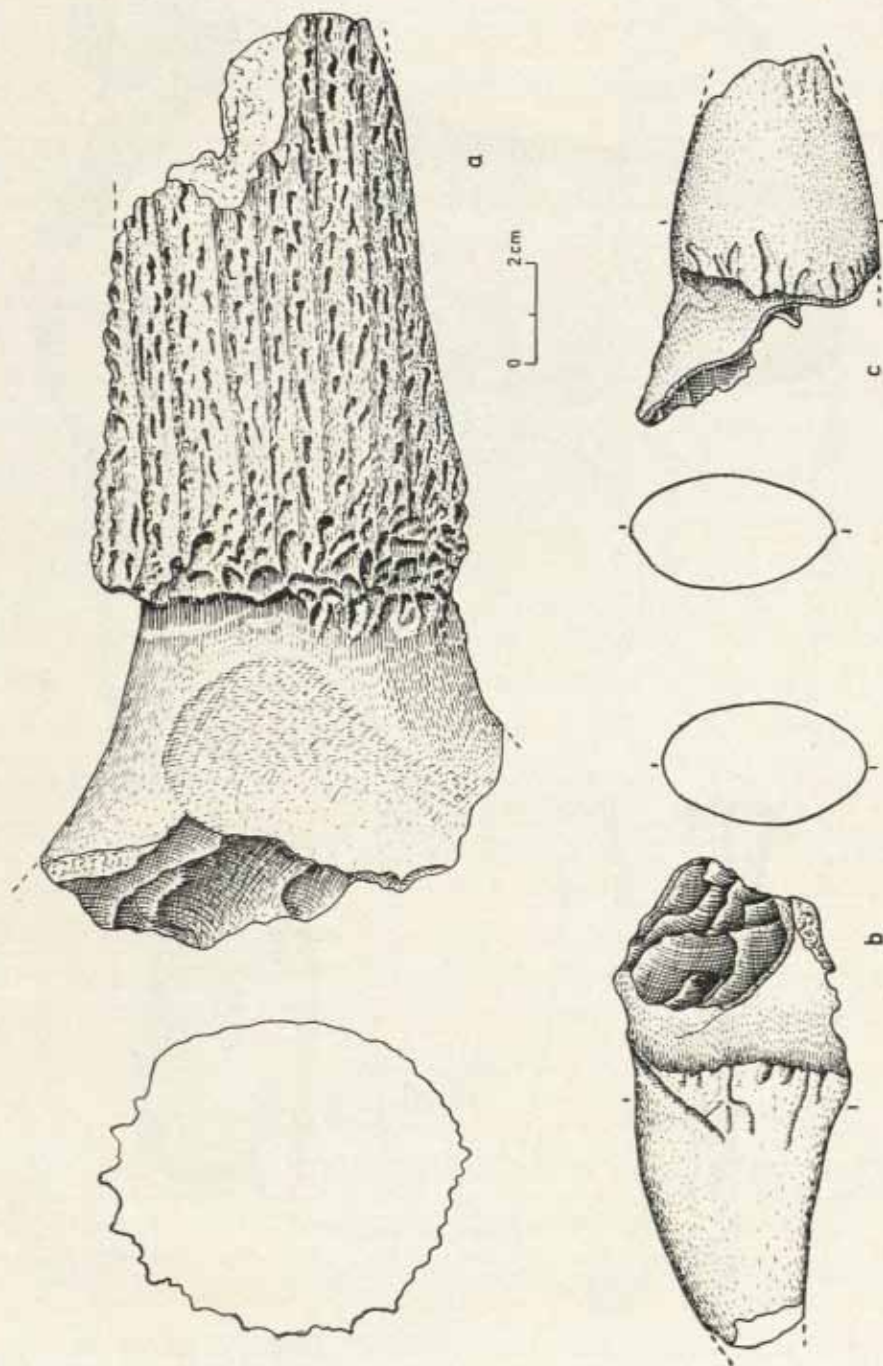


Fig. 30 *Bos taurus (indicus)*. a : 1. horncore, Navdatoli (12850 1A6 7); b : Navdatoli (3374 I u 9), 3375IU 9.

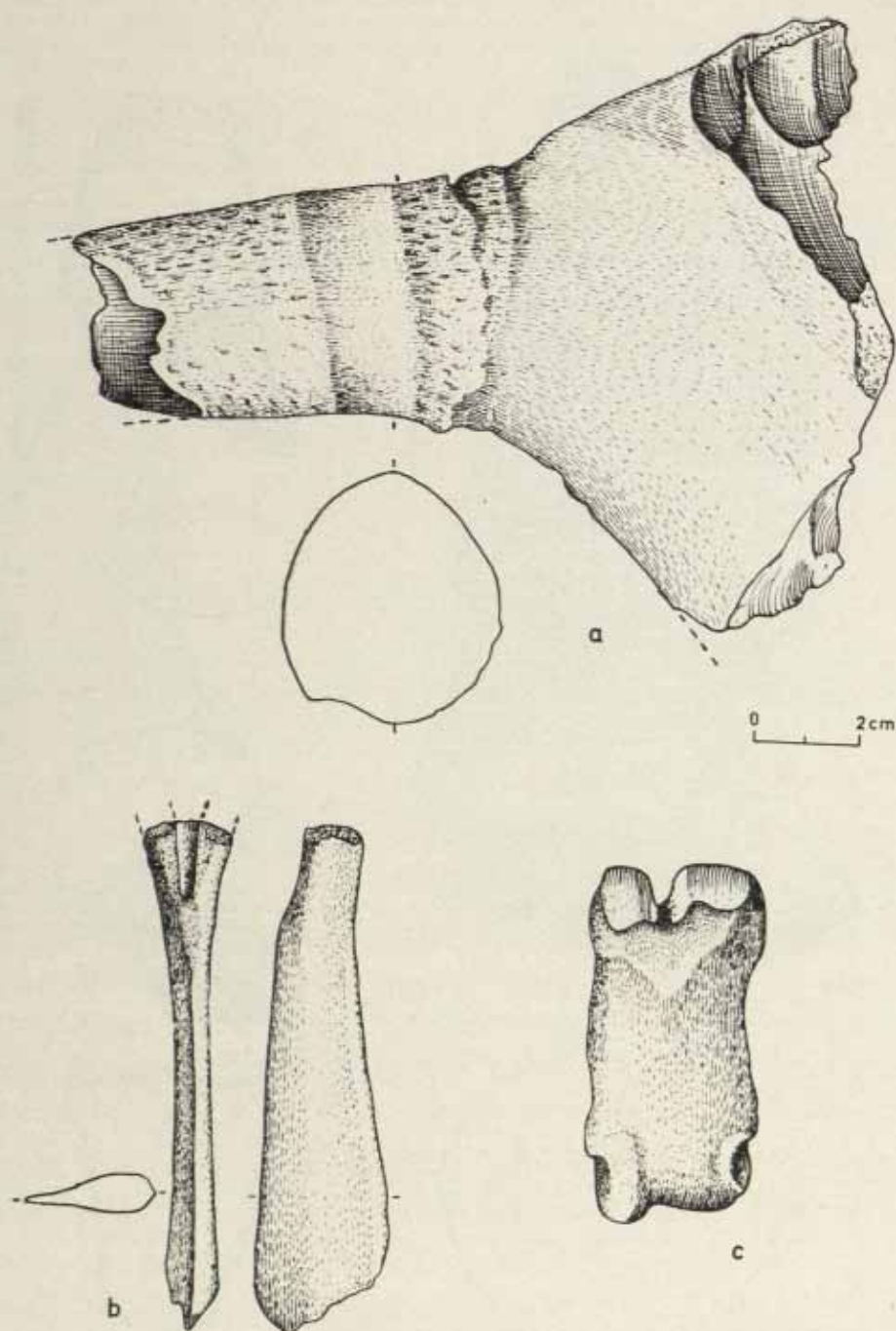


Fig. 31 *Bos taurus* (indicus) a : 1 horncore (caudal), Navdatoli (Tr. 1 6 1722); b : spina dorsalis, Inamgaon (1 I 9 2); c : phalanx I, Inamgaon (-1 B 1 2).



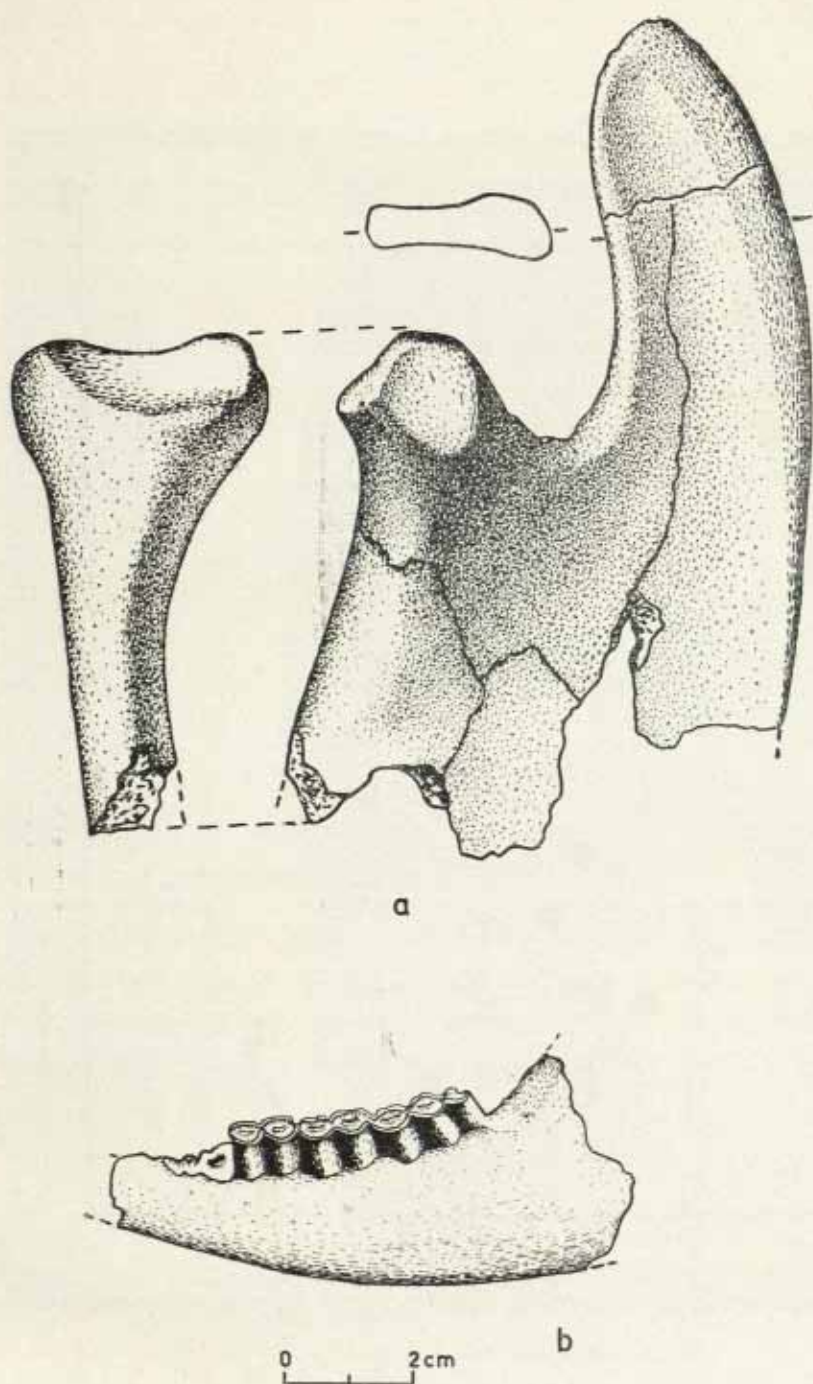


Fig. 32 *Bos taurus* (indicus). a : 1. mandibula, Kayatha (A9—I); *Gazella gazella*; b : 1 mandibula ( $M_1$   $M_2$   $M_3$ ), Navdatoli (255 IV. III. II 2).

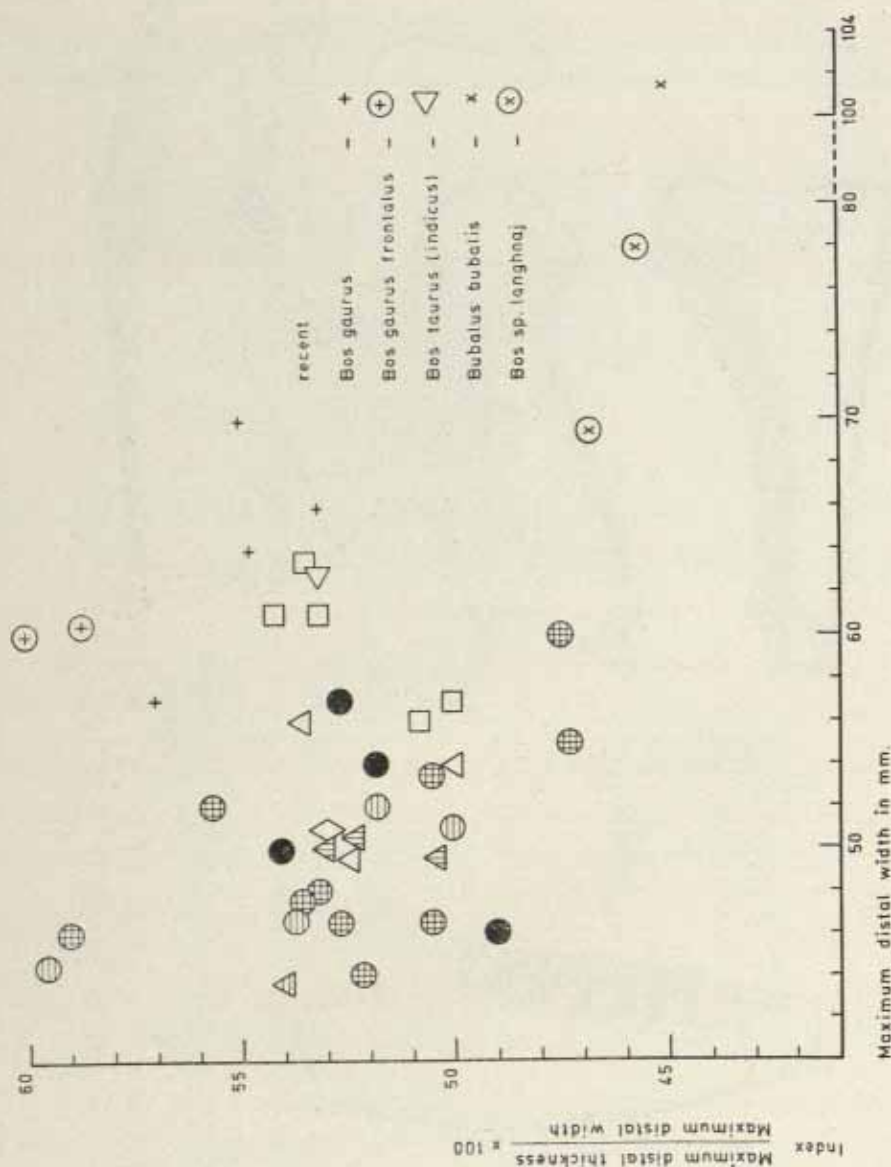


Fig. 33 Bovidae. Metacarpus. Maximum distal width (horizontal) plotted against the index Minimum distal width/Maximum distal width  $\times 100$  (horizontal).

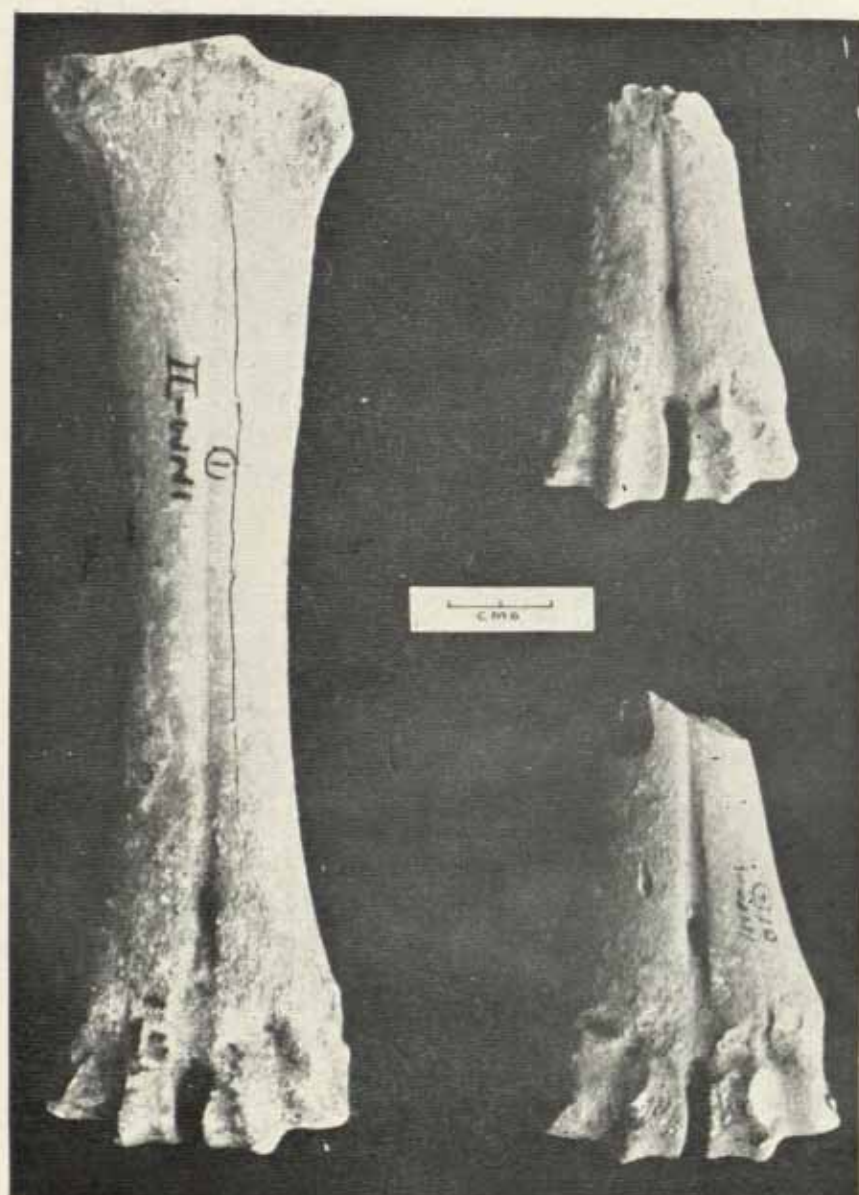


Fig. 34 *Bos* sp. Metacarpus from Inamgaon.

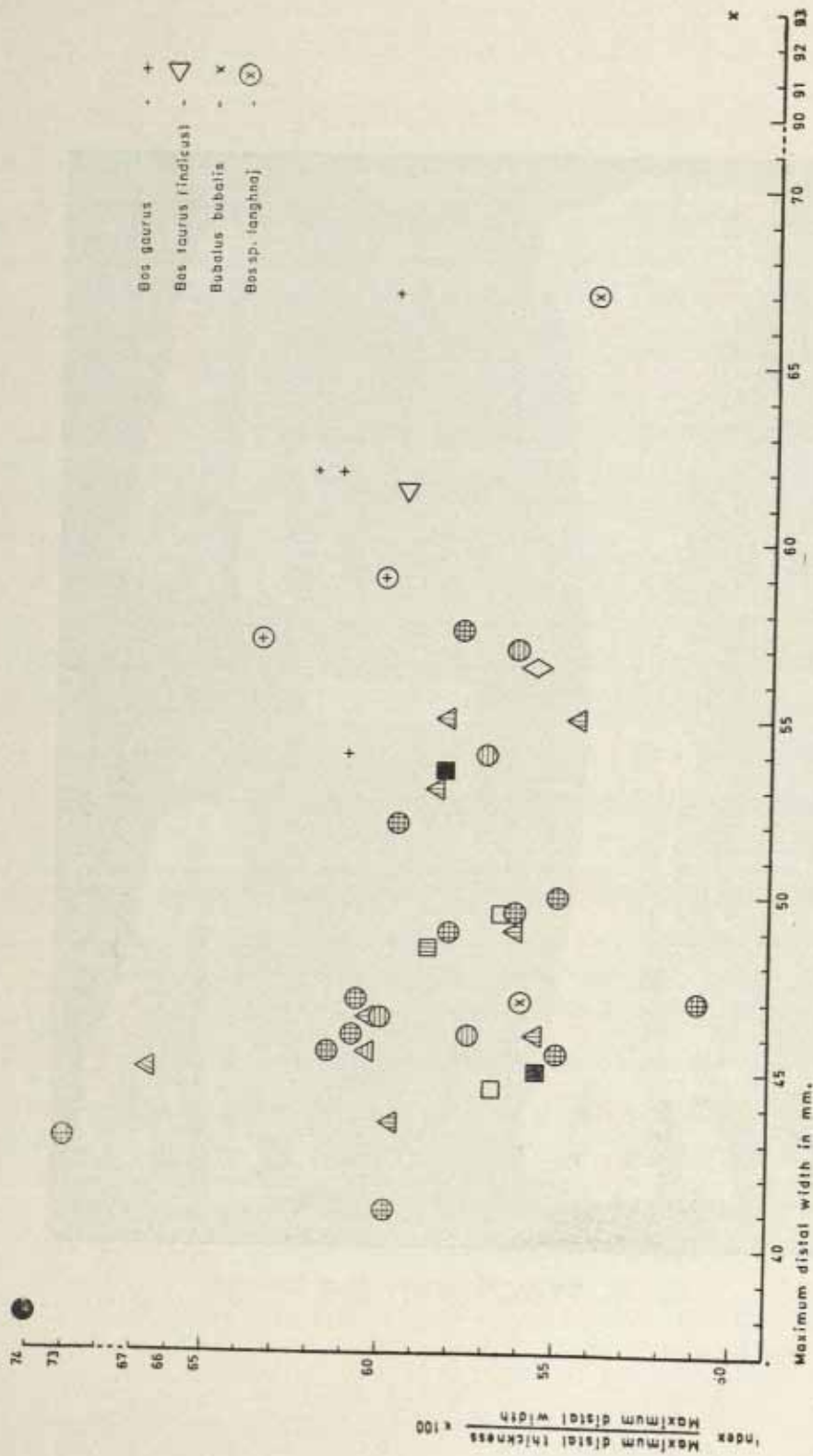


Fig. 35 Bovid Metatarsus. The maximum distal width (horizontal) plotted against the Index Maximum distal thickness/Maximum distal width  $\times 100$  (vertical).



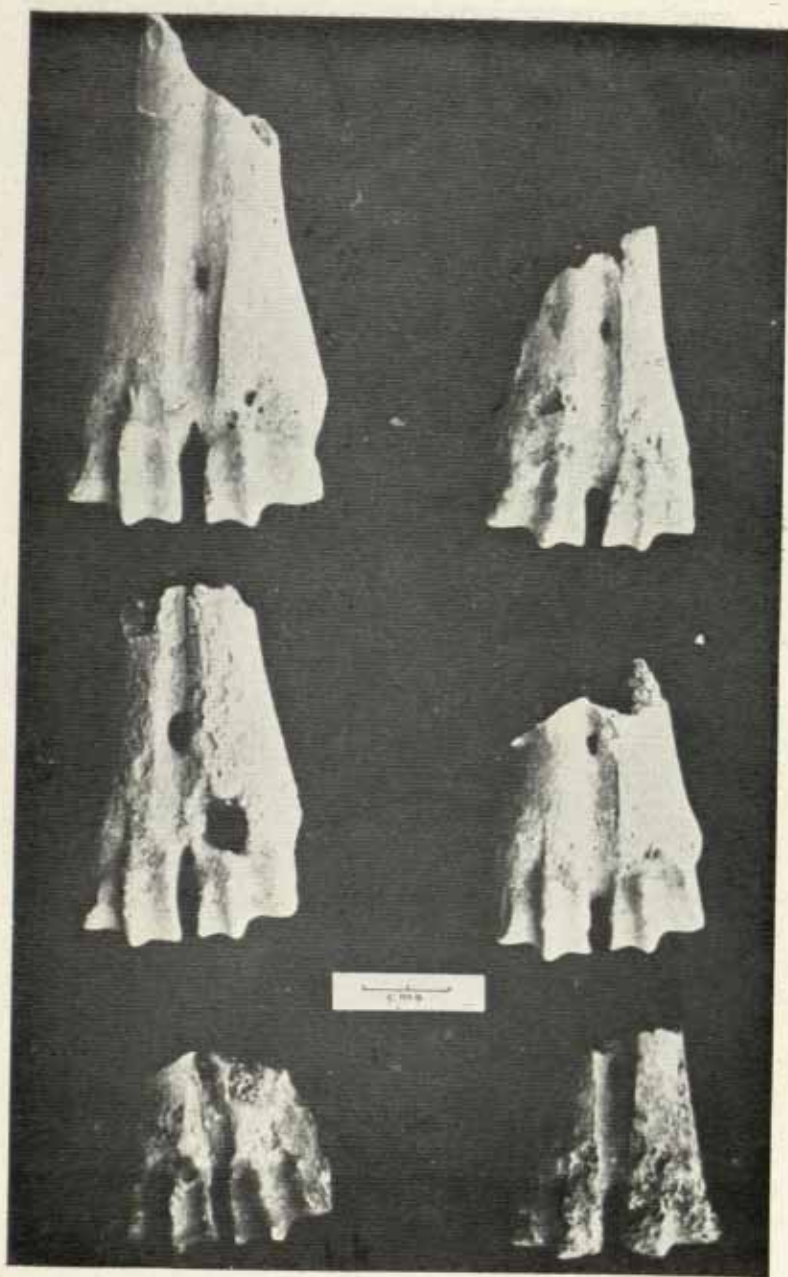


Fig. 36 Bovid. Distal epiphysis of metatarsus found at Inamgaon  
 (from r. to l.) D 1, I 8 4; 04 1, A2 2; D1 4, C3 4.

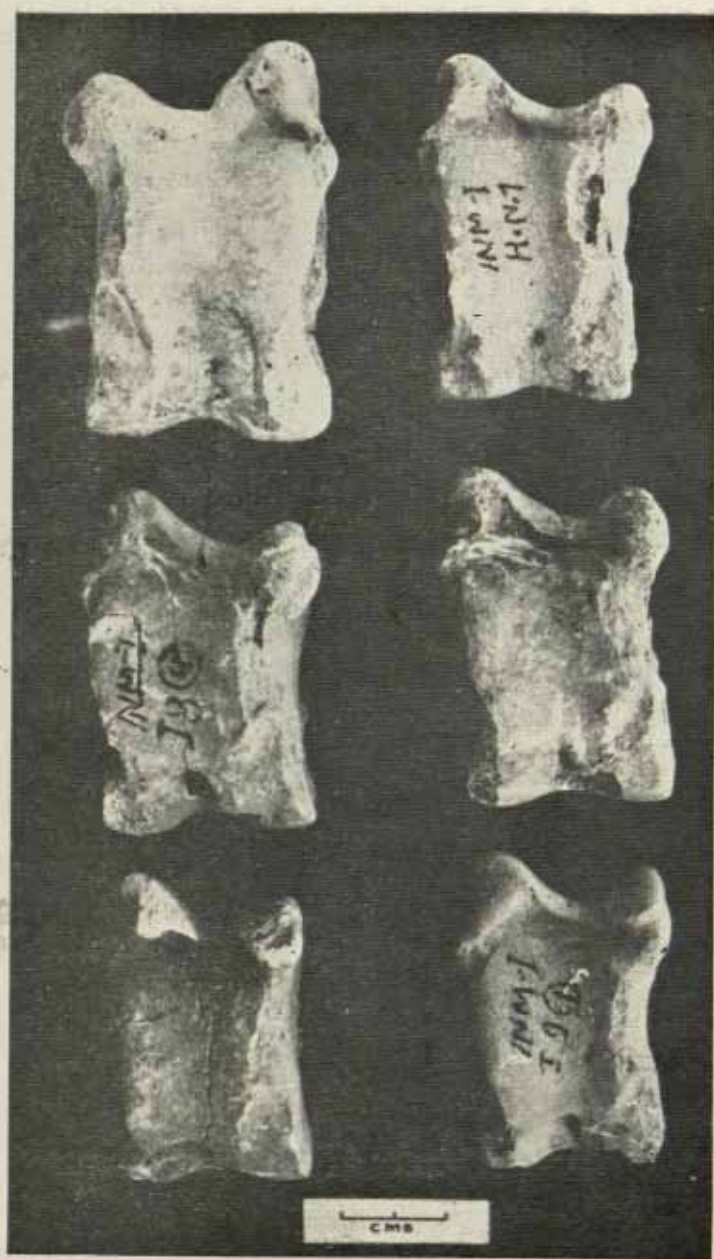


Fig. 37 Bovid. Astragali found at Inamgaon  
(from r. to l.; ?, HN 1184, II 1; D4, 191).

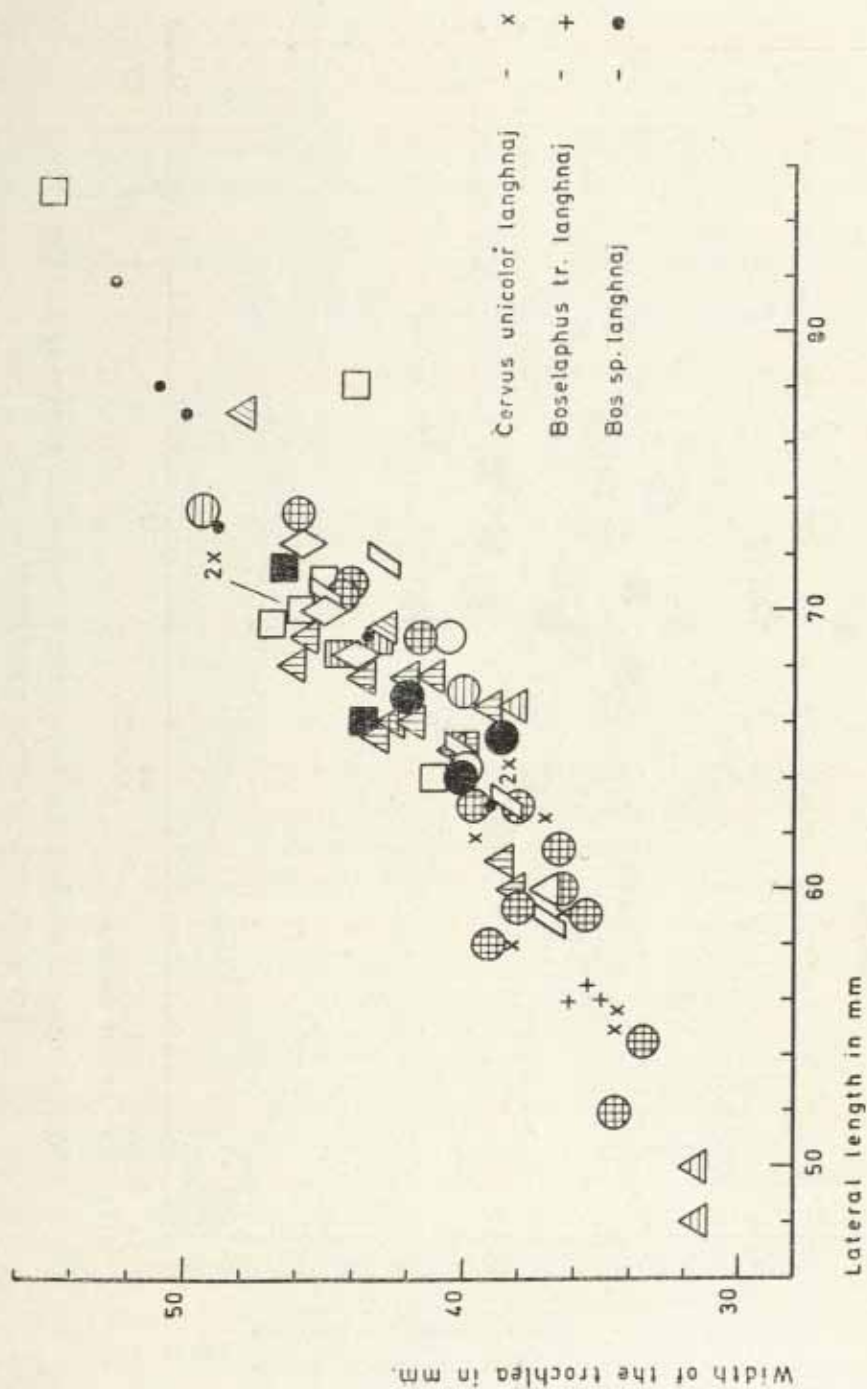


Fig. 38 Bovid. Astragalus. The lateral length (horizontal) plotted against the width of the trochlea (vertical).

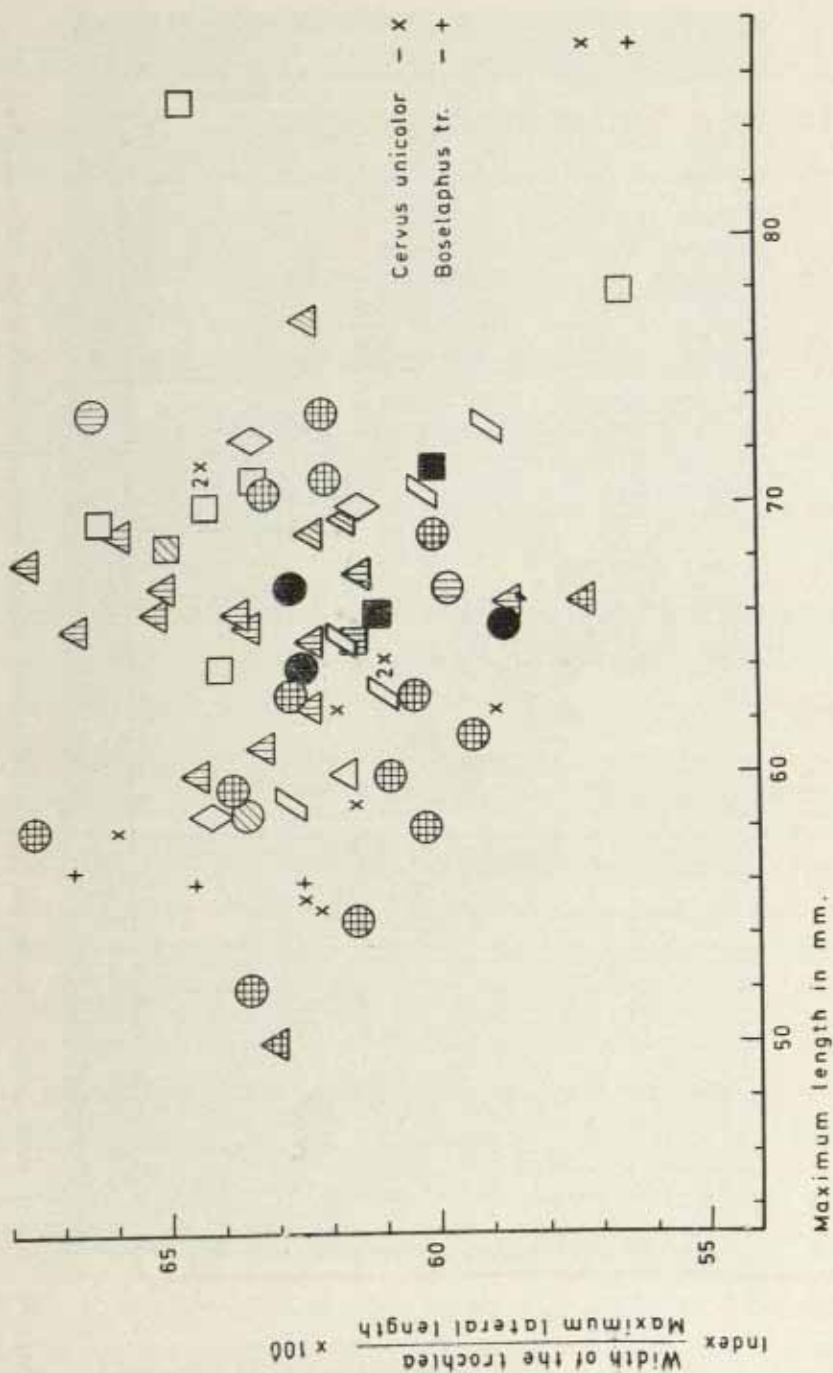


Fig. 39 Bovid. Astragalus. The lateral length (horizontal) plotted against the index width of the trochlea/lateral length  $\times 100$ .



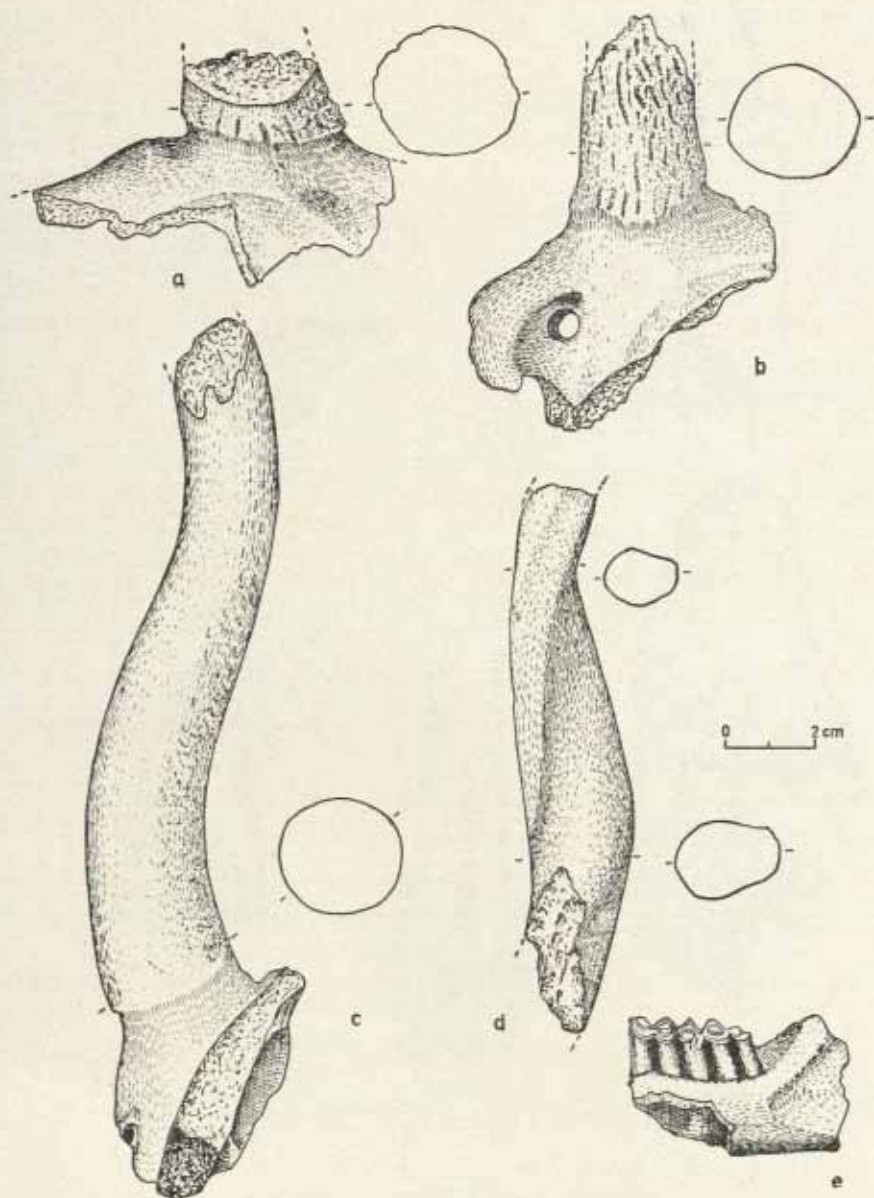


Fig. 40 *Antelope cervicapra*, horncores. a : Inamgaon (—1 J 8 3);  
 b: Inamgaon (—1 J 9 1); c : Navdatoli (2756 I V 9);  
 d : 1. mandibula (M<sub>2</sub> M<sub>3</sub>), Nevasa (3732 Tr. 200 8).

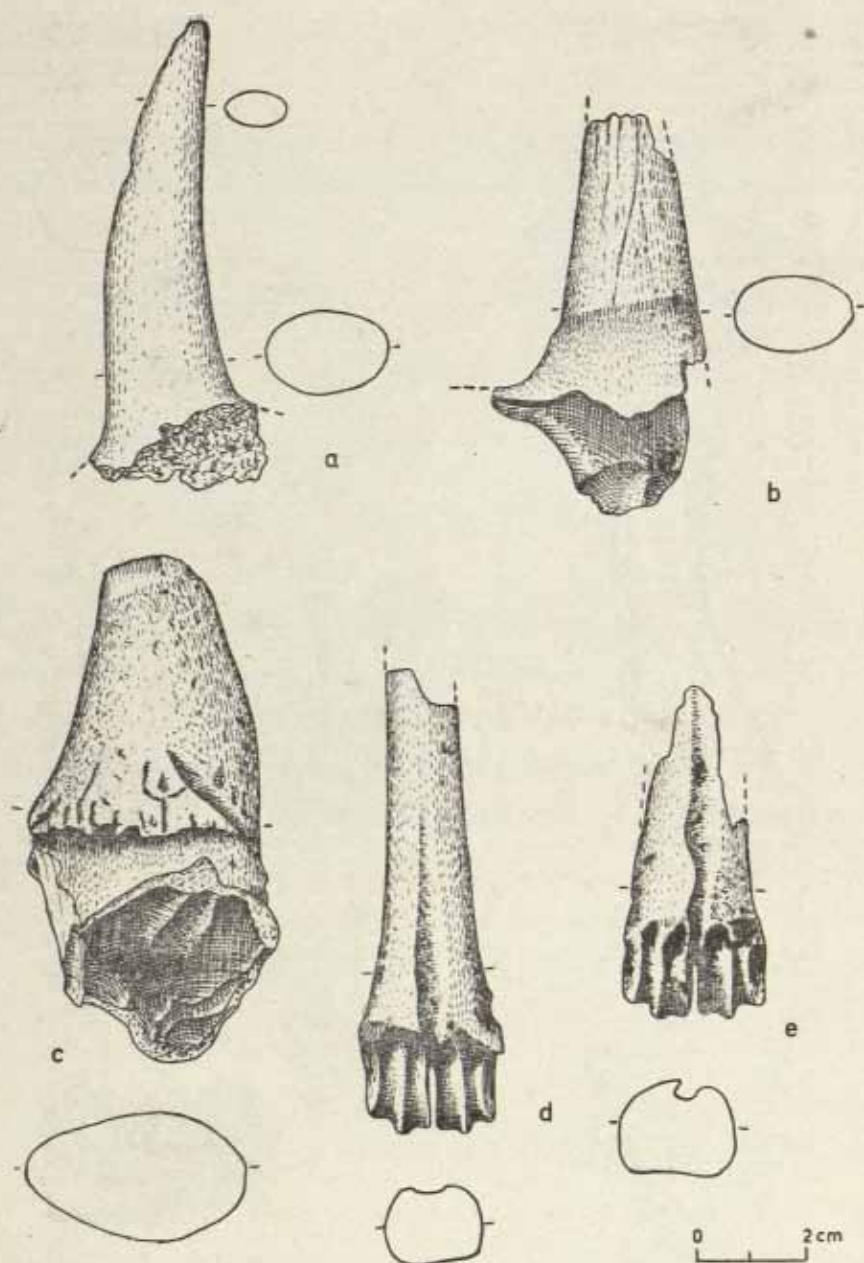


Fig. 41 *Capra hircus*, horncores. a : Navdatoli (III 198 I 2);  
b : Nevasa (319 Tr. A 5 I); *Ovis aries*, horncore;  
c : Navdatoli (IV, I U 9 3374); *Capra/Ovis* metatarsus;  
d : Inamgaon (D2 2); e : Inamgaon (D 2 3 I).

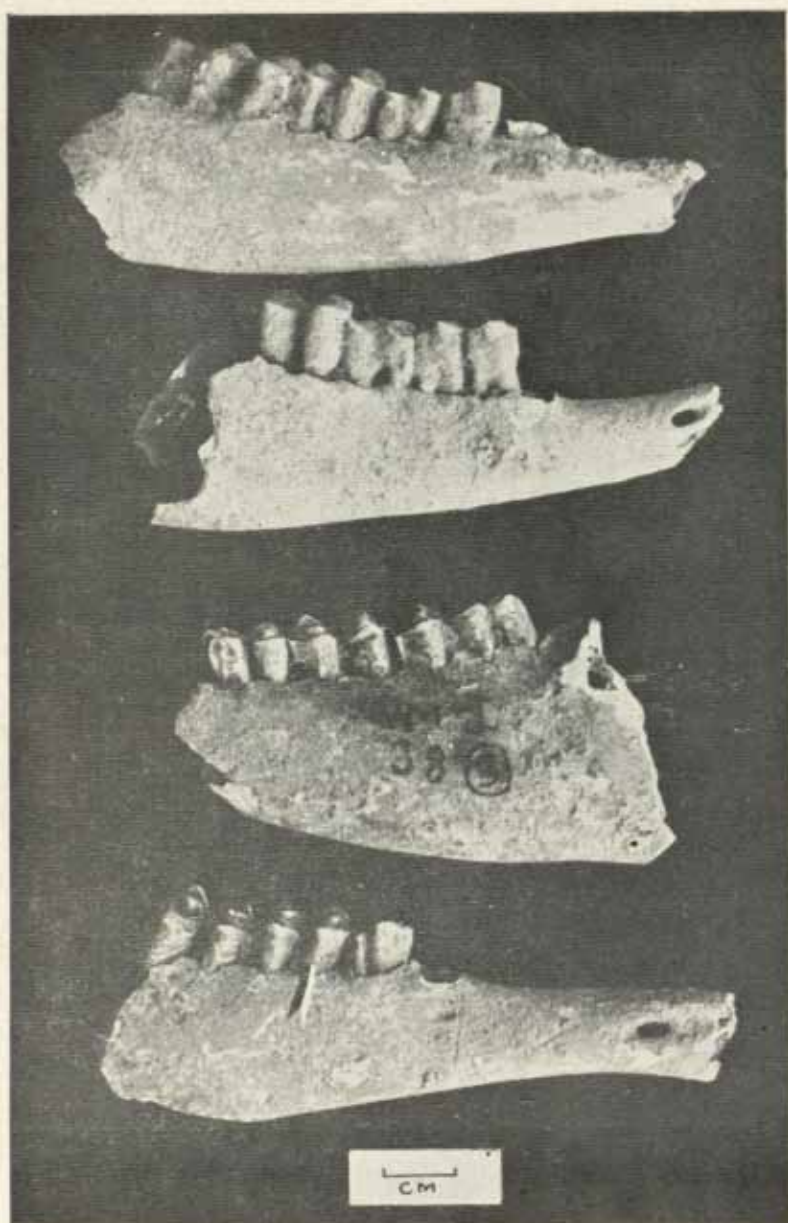


Fig. 42 Capra/Ovis, mandibulae. from above to r. mandibula ( $P_4 M_1 M_2 M_3$ ); Inamgaon (—I B, 3); r. mandibula ( $P_3 P_4 M_1 M_2$ ), Inamgaon (P 8 I); l. mandibula ( $M_1 M_2 M_3$ ); Inamgaon (I 8 3); l. mandibula ( $P_4 M_1 M_2$ ), Inamgaon, this mandibula probably belongs to another species. The pattern of the enamel is not the same as that of the other three pieces.

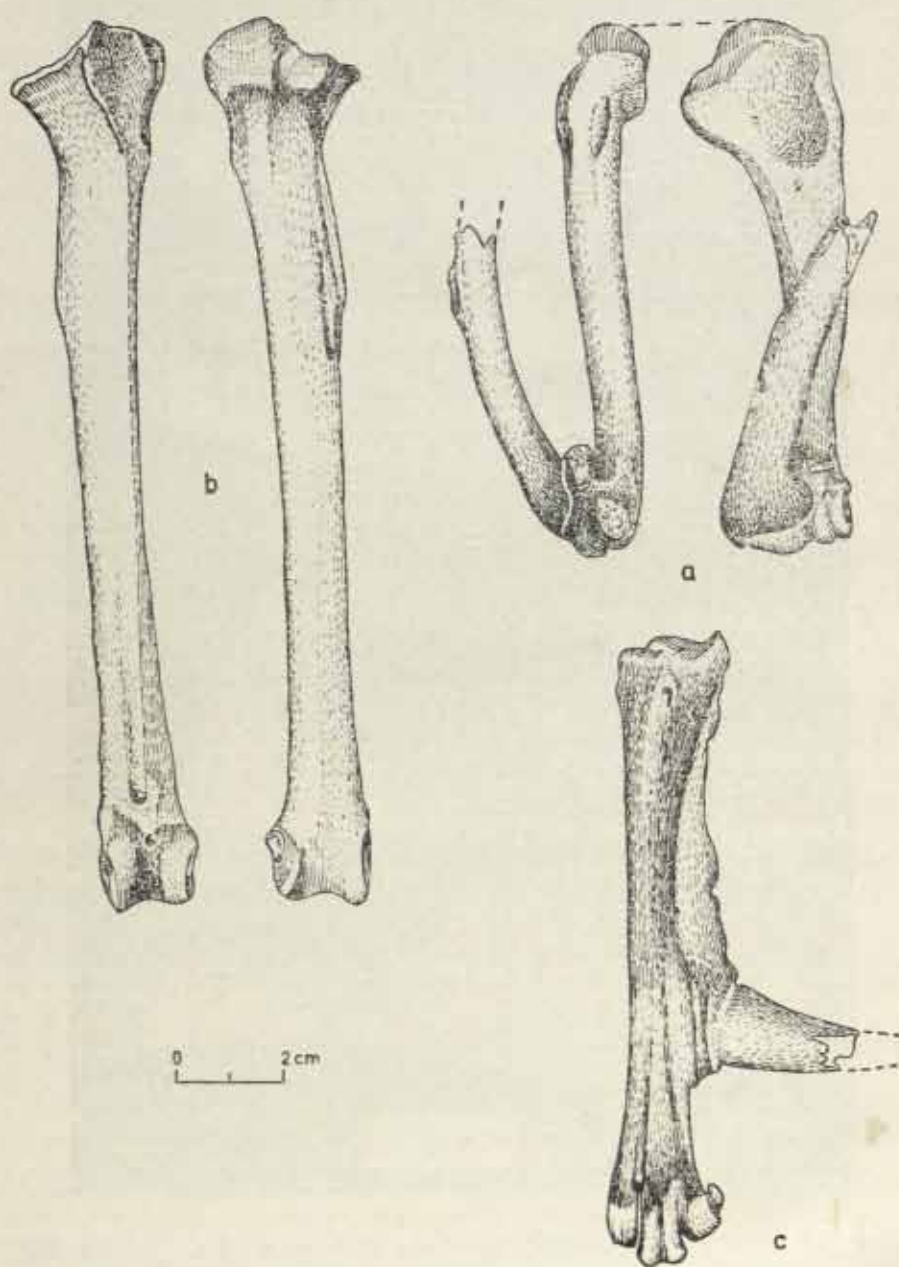


Fig. 43 *Gallus gallus domesticus*. Nevasa. a, humerus; b, tibio-tarsus; c, tarso metatarsus ♂.



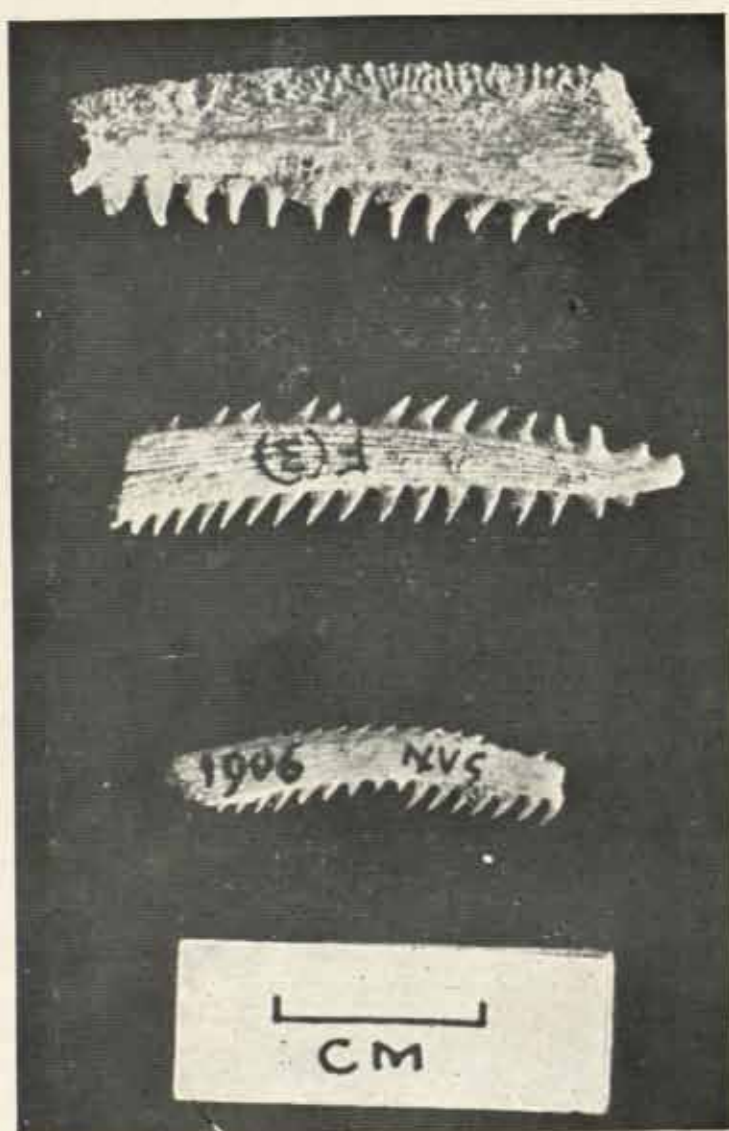
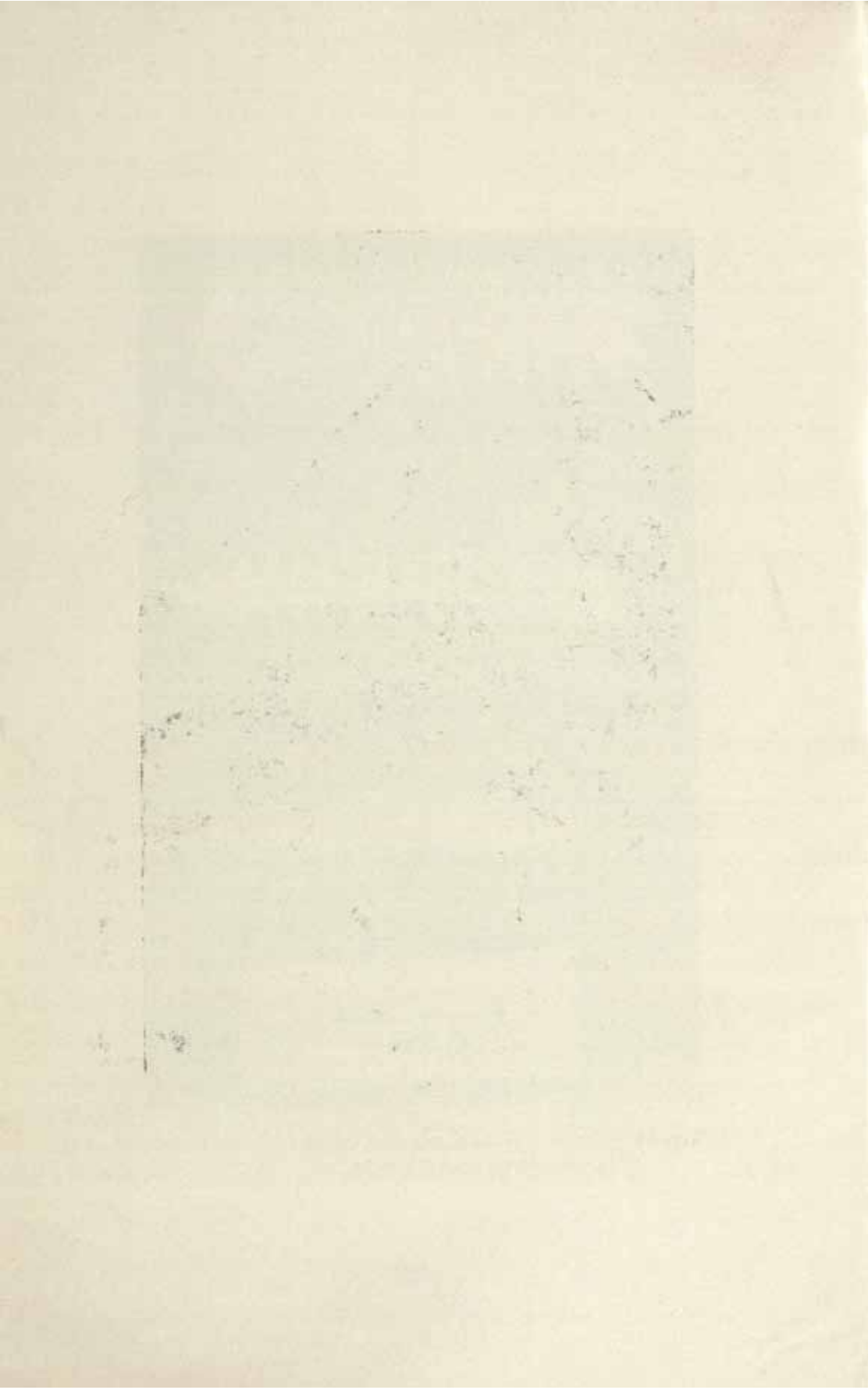


Fig. 41 The rays of the dorsal fins of ciprinide fish found in Nevasa (at least 2 species).





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